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THE NEW ERA

Journal of the World Education Fellowship

Vol. 59 No. 1 February 1978

Alternatives and Objectives

Robin Hodgkin's vision of Education 2000

Delta Free School, Southampton

International Extension College: the Alternative to Nothing

VEF Section News

NEF Conference reports: Education to what end?

Children's books reviewed by children

John Darling: 'The Belt Rules, OK?' Beating in Scottish schools

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THE NEW ERA

incorporating World Studies Bulletin and Ideas

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THE NEW ERA IN 1978

The annual subscription for six issues, including postage, will continue to be £3. The May and September issues will include *Ideas*, the curriculum journal of Goldsmith's College, University of London; and the March, July and November issues will be joint issues with the *World Studies Bulletin*.

If you would like to subscribe in 1978 please send a cheque for £3 to the Honorary Treasurer, William Johnson, 53 Grayshott Road, London SW11 5TS, UK. Cheques should please be made payable to 'The New Era.'

This issue has been edited by Nick Peacey.

Editor's Introduction

This New Era comes to you with two of its components inflated beyond their usual dimensions. Colin Harris' Reviews Section has grown to allow itself a good look at readers, reading and children's books. The children's books have, as is only proper, been reviewed by children.

By popular demand, there's much more Section News this time: and Michael Wright and a team of correspondents have combined to present a blow-by-blow description of the series of conferences organised recently by the ENEF with that title it's impossible to punctuate: Education to what end? Education: to what end? Education, to what end??

Write to us with Section News and conference reports if you want rest of the WEF to know what's happening in your part of the world.

Otherwise we're looking at alternatives. Robin Hodgkin's exciting paper 'Education 2000' is here reproduced in full for the first time. He looks ahead to a time when the secondary schoolteacher ceases to exist. Will half WEF's members become redundant, then, in Mr Hodgkin's 2000? Read the article and decide what your fate will be.

Ann McNiff visited Delta Free School and found plenty to compare with the schools (unfree) she had once taught in: and I visited the International Extension College and learnt how desperate are the educational needs of

the developing countries now trying out distance teaching.

One article is quite different from the rest: amid Mr Hodgkin's imaginative leap forward, the happy thoughts of free school and the ENEF's careful deliberations on objectives comes an article on a barbaric anachronism. Dr John Darling who lectures in the Department of Education of the University of Aberdeen has produced a chilling summary of research on the extent of child-beating in Scottish schools. It seemed right that an issue that looked ahead to the next century should look sideways at an example of the nineteenth century's practices that's a long time dying.

Finally, please admire Fiona Bell Currie's portrait of James Henderson on the next page: if you've not had the pleasure of meeting him, rest assured that it is an excellent likeness. You can see Fiona herself inside the back cover flanked by men from the 'Ideas' editorial board. They are: (back row) James Breese, Michael Wright, Rex Andrews, (seated) Leslie Smith, Tony Weaver, Norman Kirby. You may also like to write to the Dutch Section to enjoy the illustrations (even if you can't read the language) of their political history of Surinam, written and illustrated by three Rotterdam children. One of the pictures is reproduced on page 190.

CONFERENCES

The US section conference at Hoyt Conference Centre, Ypsilanti, Michigan will have as its theme 'The universal importance of the individual in school and society.' The conference runs from August 15-21.

The Danish Section, as announced at the WEF AGM (see Section News) are holding a study conference from March 15-18th 1978. The conference will be bilingual English-Danish.

Subject: Education for Unemployment

(The educational implications of the present economic problems of the developed world; in particular in relation to the unemployment crisis among young people.)

Fee: £35 (This, of course, does not include fares).

If you wish to attend please send the form below to Sten Clausen immediately.

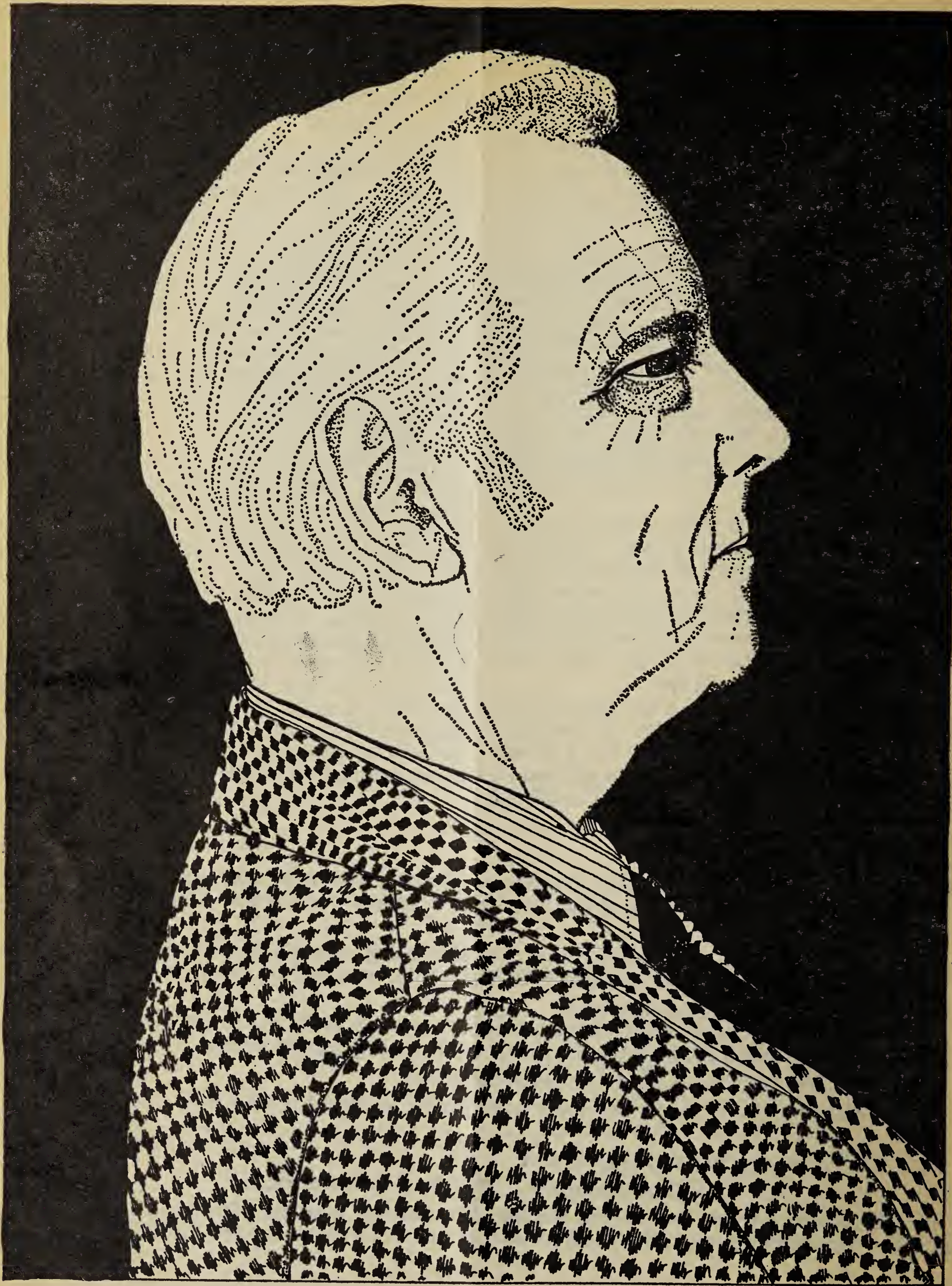
To the Chairman, the Danish Section, WEF

Kobbelvaenget 62, 2700 Bronshof, Denmark.

Please register me for the Danish Section Conference starting 15th March, 1978. I enclose the registration fee of £5 and undertake to pay the balance by the 1st March 1978.

Name

Address



From the Chairman, World Education Fellowship

I am writing at the invitation of the editors of the New Era to offer a few comments on the work of the Fellowship. In spite of its slightly old-fashioned sound, that word, fellowship, still expresses well what unites its members. This consists in likemindedness and shared activity on the part of a small number of men and women concerned with education, who are scattered widely across the earth, but who lack so far a presence in Africa and, regrettably, in the Communist countries. What they have in common is that they have all been "caught by the future": whether as teachers or parents they discern the educational priorities of to-day which must be satisfied if there is a to-morrow for the human species.

Perhaps if I try to list those priorities, as I see them, they may attract agreement or disagreement from readers in what could become an ongoing forum of discussion in these columns and indicate how much of a world movement we really are.

1. The identifying, respecting and propagating educationally those values shared by mankind as a whole.
2. The establishment in all educational systems of that degree of authority which may be legitimately be invoked by parents and teachers to safeguard the freedom of children to 'fulfil their own hypotheses.'
3. The application in all types of educational institution of the best researched and proven learning theory to daily practice in home and school.
4. The fostering of Development Education i.e. knowing about the problems and possibilities of growing up in the Third World.

(See Centre for World Development Education, Parnell House, Wilton Road, London SW1.).

5. An insistence on schools being integral parts of their environment with special reference to relevance in the curriculum and parent-teacher co-operation.
6. The planning and execution of a WEF project, involving at least five sections, in order to demonstrate the degree of global solidarity achievable. A splendid opportunity for this occurs in connection with UNICEF's International Year of the Child 1979. I am already in touch with its Director in Europe, Dr James F. McDougall, and I hope that plans for co-operation in this enterprise between UNICEF and WEF will be well-advanced by early summer next year.

Finally, I am glad to report that at a meeting of the Guiding Committee on 29th October 1977, at which we were fortunate enough to have our President, Dr Madhuri Shah present, it was decided to prepare the launching of an appeal for an International WEF Development Fund. A small working-party has been appointed to draw up a programme for such an appeal with regard to objectives and scope. This will be presented for final approval at the meeting of the General Assembly of WEF in Michigan, USA in August 1978. Meanwhile each section is urged to send in its own proposals concerning the best use to be made of such a Development Fund to the General Secretary as soon as possible.

James L. Henderson
Chairman

We are most grateful to Fiona Bell Currie of Goldsmiths' College for taking on the New Era commission for a portrait of Dr Henderson. The result of all her work is reproduced opposite.

Section news from round the world

(This collection of items includes notes from the WEF Annual General Meeting.)

Australia

The Australian Council reported: 'WEF in Australia continues with a reasonably small but dedicated membership in all Sections. Professor Campbell, the Australian President, recently spoke at a Conference of sixty members in South Australia. The NSW Section, probably the strongest numerically, continues to conduct a varied program. Although the WA and Launceston memberships are comparatively smaller than the above two Sections, the membership is active. Queensland Section has organised a number of functions during the year. This Section will sorely miss Lady Cowen's leadership and drive when her husband, Sir Zelman, becomes Governor-General of Australia later this year.

The 1978 Australian Conference will be held in Brisbane on the weekend of January 28-29 with, it is envisaged, all Sections represented.

WEF in Australia continues to be an active body providing a unique forum for the discussion of educational issues of importance by disparate interested parties. We in Brisbane are looking forward to the Australian Conference and again discussing WEF's achievements and problems "down under".

La Section Belge

La Ligue Mondiale d'Education compte peu de membres actifs en Belgique. Aussi a-t-elle décidé de se constituer en groupe de travail et de réaliser chaque année des objectifs limités, mais précis. Son activité est grande d'octobre à mai, mais cesse entièrement durant l'été.

Une importante enquête a occupé l'année 76-77, sur le thème 'Nous autres, les Enfants'. Des centaines de jeunes ont réalisé des textes et des dessins, dont l'essentiel fut présenté, sous les auspices de la Ligue dans une station du métro de Bruxelles; à cette occasion, une brochure a été publiée

par la Section. L'exposition a circulé dans toute la Belgique et est actuellement présentée par la 'Maison des Femmes', à Liège. Les textes et les dessins des enfants seront publiés incessamment; leur intérêt sociologique nous a en effet paru suffisant pour justifier une publication complète.

La Section a publié trois Bulletins de Liaison, dont l'un constituait un rapport sur la Conférence de la WEF à Sydney.

Le thème de l'année 77-78 porte le titre (provisoire) del Nous autres, les Parents! Une journée de réflexion sur ce sujet a eu lieu le 23 avril 1977, à l'Hôtel de Ville de Bruxelles. La Section compte réaliser un montage destiné à une diffusion aussi large que possible par la Télévision Nationale Belge.

Enfin, l'Université Libre de Bruxelles (Centre de Philosophie du Droit) nous a demandé un exposé sur un des points traités par la WEF à Bombay, sous le titre 'Rien n'est plus inégal qu'une éducation égale pour des enfants inégaux.' L'intérêt de cette étude a incité les responsables du centre à retenir le thème de l'inégalité en éducation pour organiser un groupe de recherche, dont le travail se poursuivra toute l'année et se clôturera par un volume d'annales.

La Section belge se réjouit vivement d'avoir, grâce à la WEF, des contacts internationaux qui lui permettent de mesurer son effort à celui de toutes les autres sections. Les rencontres directes sont malheureusement peu fréquentes et matériellement difficiles à multiplier; aussi insiste-t-elle pour que 'New Era' devienne effectivement l'organe de liaison multilingue dont la WEF a absolument besoin pour rester représentative des courants qui assurent l'orientation progressiste de l'éducation. Un double mouvement devrait acheminer l'information venue des Sections nationales vers Londres et faire connaître les grands événements (Conférences) aux mem-

bres de chaque groupe local.

Belgium

The WEF has few active members in Belgium. We have decided to form ourselves into working groups to achieve, each year, objectives which if limited are nonetheless precise. We pack a full programme of activities into the period of the year between October and May. We have spent 1976/7 on an important enquiry on the theme: 'Remember us children'. Hundreds of young people have completed pieces of writing and graphic art. The most effective were on show (sponsored by the WEF) on one of the Underground stations in Brussels. In connection with this a brochure was published by the WEF. The exhibition toured the whole of Belgium and is at present on show at the Maison des Femmes in Liege.

Writing and pictures by these children will be published regularly. Their sociological interest in fact seemed to us to justify publication in full.

The section has published three newsletters of which one was a report of the WEF conference in Sydney.

Our theme for 1977/8 is provisionally titled: Remember us parents. A study day on this subject took place on the 23rd April 1977 at the Town Hall in Brussels.

The Section is hoping to put out a programme — aimed at as large an audience as possible — on Belgian State Television.

Finally the Free University of Brussels (Centre for Philosophy of Law) has asked us for an account of one of the issues discussed by the WEF at Bombay under the title of 'Nothing is more unfair than equal educational opportunities for children whose background is unequal'. The interest in this particular study has inspired those responsible for the Centre to pursue this theme of inequality in education and to organise a research group whose work will continue throughout the year and will eventually appear in book form.

The Belgian Section members greatly appreciate the international contacts for which they have to thank the WEF and which have allowed them to measure their efforts against those of all the other sections. Face to face meetings are regrettably very rare — and its hard to increase them for reasons of finance.

The Belgian Section is keen that the 'New Era' should become the established multilingual medium of communication: this is essential for the WEF so it can remain representative of those currents of opinion that ensure that education will continue on progressive lines. A two-way flow should make it possible to channel to London the information from various national sections and to distribute information about the important events (conferences etc.) to the members of each local group.

Denmark

'Mr Gregersen regretted that there had been a slow decline in membership, but the Section was active and a conference was planned for discussion of integration in schools, as well as the Spring Conference (mentioned above). The circulation (in terms of copies sold) of the magazine was also declining, partly due to the availability of duplicating machines in teacher-training colleges, schools, etc. Thanks to the co-operation of a publishing house, the Section now has a library of about 150 titles.'

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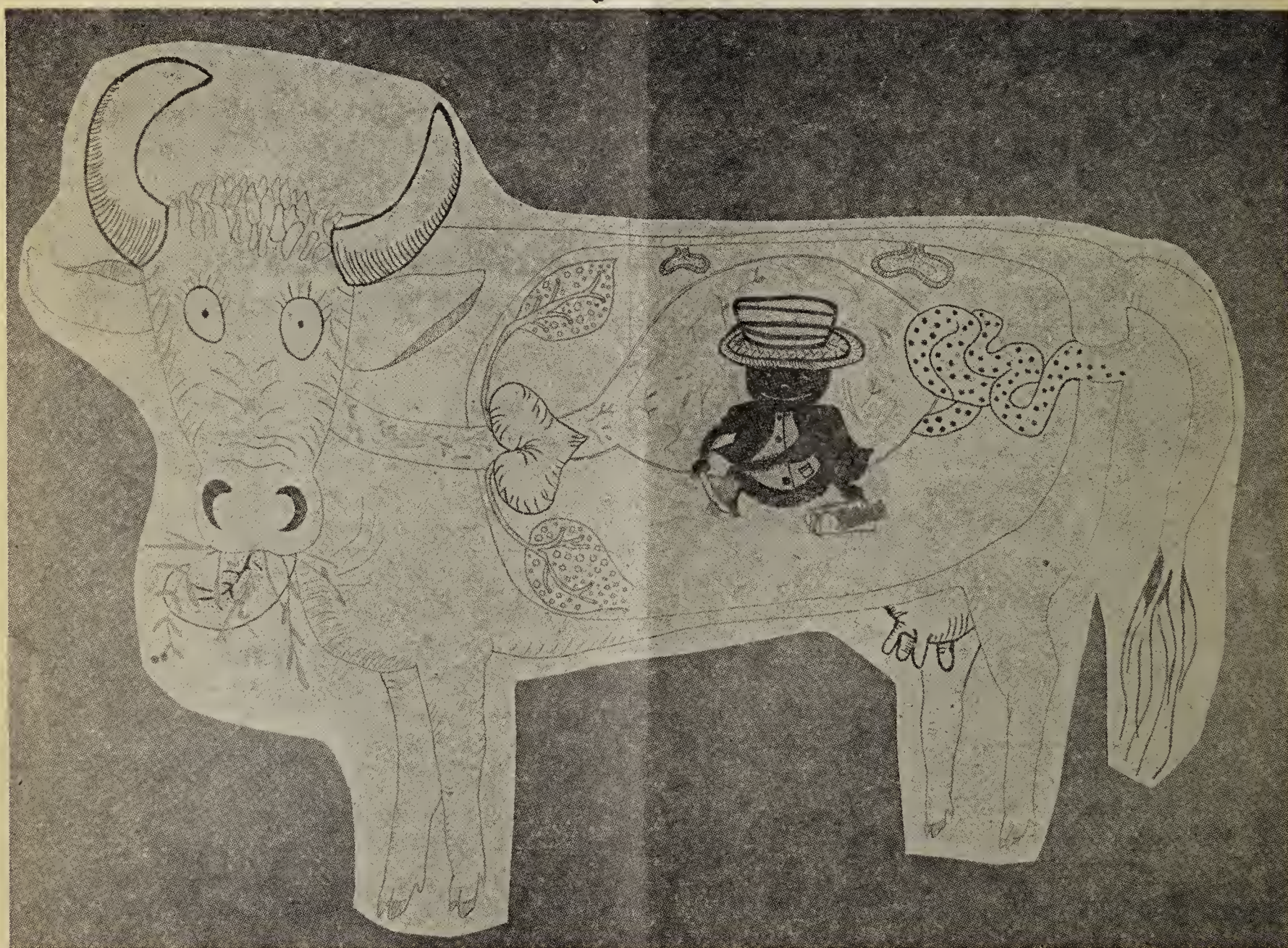
Dutch Section

'Mr van Stapele told members the Dutch Section had recently been decentralised, and local working centres set up in Rotterdam and other towns. There were now ten or eleven such working groups — all autonomous — and they were trying to get financial help internationally. They hoped to link up their work in schools and factories, and to link with groups in other countries. A conference was held in June, attended by members from fourteen countries: details would, he hoped, be published in the New Era. He would like to set up a 'project bank' of national skills, so that children from different backgrounds could exchange experiences, e.g. children from Rotterdam and Surinam, or Chilean refugees living in Amsterdam. During the past two years the Section had succeeded in establishing direct communication between groups in different countries.'

ENEF

'Mr Raymond King informed members that each year the English Section produced an annual report stating its policies and programme, analysing its work, and pointing the way ahead. The Section began the year with an attempt to devolve the work at present falling on the central organisation of the ENEF, but the work burden was no less. Unfortunately, owing to lack of support, the Easter Conference had to be cancelled in spite of the work put in, and he felt they should in future ally with other kindred organisations such as Forum. The Chairman had suggested collaborating with The Scientific and Medical Network, and The Human Development Trust — both like-minded bodies — with concern for educational needs and basic standards but the two societies, like the ENEF, wanted the Great Debate extended and for ideas to be put continually before the

Anansi in the Cow from a Dutch Section publication



Ministry. Their project is 'Blue-Print for Being'. Present ENEF membership is static, but the project has enthused old members and brought in new ones.'

Germany

'Professor Rohrs reported the German-speaking Section had about 170 members of whom 90 were individual members, and 20 co-operative or group members. A few were from the Zurich Institute of Education; one of the co-operative members was the Education Department of the University of Bonn. The Section usually took part in two conferences each year: the first, in the frame of the International Montessori Society, was attended by about 400 participants, and was on the subject of teaching children in mixed-ability groups. The second conference, held in Austria in the frame of an international symposium, was attended by about 300-350 people, some of whom he hoped would become members of WEF. The conference lasted 10-12 days, participants attended with their families, there were speakers of international repute, evening meetings, discussions, and lectures reprinted afterwards in booklet form.'

India

In 1977, the World Education Fellowship has decided to offer various activities to its members by organizing talks, visits, symposium, seminars, conferences and educational classes for adults. From the month of June they have been active by organizing various talks. The first inaugural lecture was held on 17th June at its new premises. Our International President, Dr (Mrs) Madhuri R. Shah, explained the multifarious activities which WEF would like to undertake in future. She invited the views of various members and their suggestions were welcomed. Some of our members suggested to undertake innovative projects for schools. Also some members suggested to create awareness amongst people about new patterns of education. Dr Shah suggested that we should start a newsletter which would bring in exchange of ideas.

The next talk was held on 15th July on 'Scientific Attitude in Education' by Prof. A. N. Kothare, an eminent educationist in the field

of Science. He introduced science as an interesting subject from childhood if it is presented with a new approach.

On the 19th August we had a talk by eminent Gujarati poet, Dr Suresh Dalal. He read some poems in Gujarati and explained to the members how one can enjoy poetry and appreciate the theme and the underlying idea. He is a modern poet who expresses his thoughts in simple manner.

Another interesting activity was an educational visit arranged for the WEF members to the Sulochanadevi Singhanja School, one of the progressive schools at Thana. The members were impressed by the warm welcome, the atmosphere, discipline and the all round education given to the children. A talk was arranged for the afternoon when Len Cairns and Dr Shah spoke about 'Innovations in Education'. Dr Shah gave us an idea how multi-level teaching, with stress on individual child and refresher courses for teachers could help our present system of education.

Italy

Extracts from letters from Professor Lamberto Borghi to Dr Henderson, and Mrs Crommelin.

1. 'Thank you very much for your invitation to attend the Annual Meeting on 22nd October . . . Unfortunately I am called to Rome on the same day by the Ministry of Education . . .

'I am glad to inform you that the proceedings of the study meeting on the problem of "marginality" which our Section organized in Florence in December 1976, as an effect of the discussion on Disaffection which went on during the Annual Meeting held in London in the previous October, are coming out in book form within a few weeks. I will send copies to you, to Drs Henderson and Weaver as soon as I have them . . .'

2. 'I have just written a letter to Mrs Crommelin expressing my regret for being unable to attend the Annual Meeting . . . As I informed Mrs Crommelin, the book which contains the reports on the problem of "marginality" which were presented at the meeting which the Italian Section of the WEF organized in Florence in December 1976, will come out very shortly, probably within the month of November.'

Education 2000

Robin Hodgkin

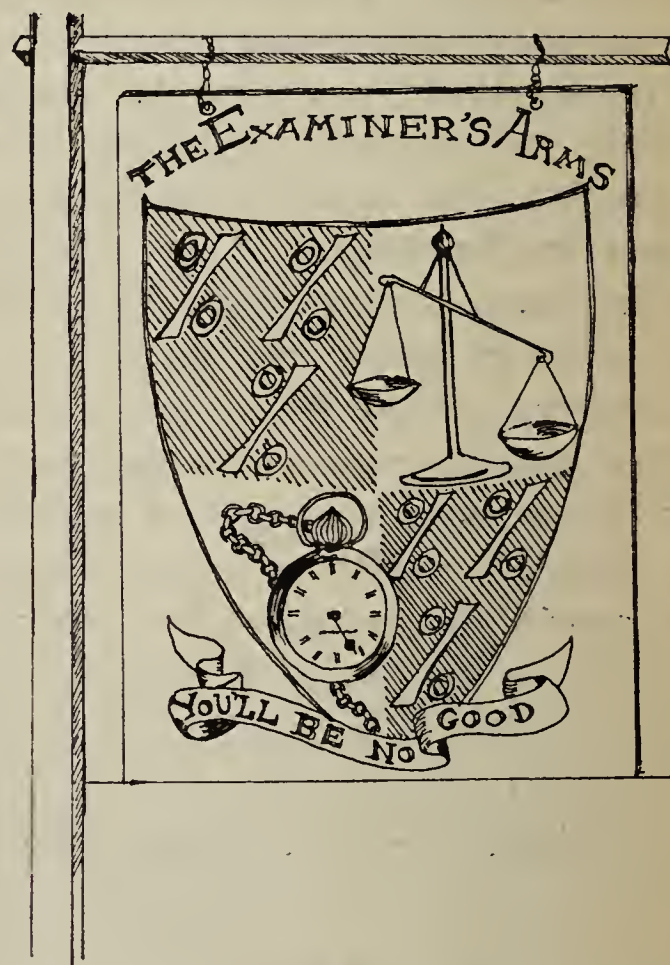
This article was originally broadcast in shortened form on Radio 3 of the British Broadcasting Corporation. Robin Hodgkin until recently worked in the University of Oxford Department of Educational Studies.

Those who live far enough from the UK to have missed the series of one-day conferences known to the British Government and its slightly baffled electors as the Great Debate can rest assured that they have missed little and will, we hope, find Mr Hodgkin's article and the accounts of the ENEF debates also included in this issue more than make up for their loss.

The remarkable thing about the so-called Great Debate on education is its smallness. How confined and backward-looking many of the issues seem! We argue about heredity and environment, freedom and discipline, progressive and 'traditional', as though these were alternatives on one of those questionnaires which only allow 'yes' or 'no' answers. Yet the obvious right answer — '**both**, and get on with it' — is rarely heard loud and clear. And in any case that is only half the answer because great changes are upon us whether we like it or not.

It is unfashionable at the moment to raise questions about the good life or the great society or to wonder whether, perhaps, we have got the whole thing seriously wrong. There was something to be said for the optimism of the early Sixties or even for the euphoria of Paris in 1968. At least many people were thinking in radical terms. There was wisdom too in what Freire was saying about thought going along with action — wisdom which might help us to understand why young people are not attracted to work in industry; and even that wild man Illich had powerful, negative things to say about parasitic professionalism and the folly of exams. And he questioned the idol of 'schooling'.

The sketch which follows is not meant to be Utopian in the sense of being a remote and unattainable *jeu d'esprit*. Nor is it meant to be a blue-print for immediate action. But massive changes are already looming ahead and we are going to have to wrestle with these in education, as in every other part of society, and wring from them something good; or sink



and suffer. The current debate ought, therefore, to be concerned, at least in part, with the question of what kind of better society we may be trying to create in the year 2000. Is there not a path of humane freedom to be worked out between the syndicalism of Eastern Europe on the one hand and old-fashioned Friedmanja on the other? And what sort of education might be appropriate to such an Open Way?

The Disease

There is one particular respect in which we are all hell-bent down a wrong educational track. It is connected with the Diploma Disease which Professor Dore so ably diagnosed in his book of that name. But he did not make it sufficiently clear that universal

secondary schooling has become the hot-bed of that disease. We all know that schooling does not equal education. Yet we go on making the old-fashioned assumption, appropriate only to narrowly elitist societies, that all proper secondary education should take place **in schools and between the ages of 12 and 18** and that part of the process must involve almost irreversible, life-chance-allocating examinations. No wonder that it requires organizational and teaching gifts of a rarity approaching genius to make a success of comprehensive education. But why do we go on with the almost impossible task? The main reason is that it used to work well for the small minority when limited, prestige-laden universities and more or less limited professional and white-collar openings gave point to it all. But now the point is blunted and bent; the Empire has popped and the economy is a wrinkled balloon. Yet we go on shutting them up to sort them out, accepting the absurdity of a fixed school leaving age and the invidious task of discriminating and conspicuously labelling 'the good, promising' minority from 'the bad, unpromising' majority. And banding or destreaming, setting or zoning, team teaching or Mode III CSE only tinker with the problem. In our impatience with the system, however, we would be foolish to decry all elites, all specialization and the pursuit of excellence; — whatever our politics, whether we favour rapid or slow change, we ought to be increasingly concerned about how people attain these good things; and how millions get — and feel — shut out.

Secondary schooling is not the only cause of vandalism, alienation, drug, alcohol — and pool-dependence, rejection of parents and tradition, of lung-cancer, boredom and passive sport; but for many adolescents the confined experience of school gives them a shove that way. In Britain, thanks to deeply-rooted values, to our admirably untidy arrangements and to many heroic, individual teachers, the system has had less disastrous effects than in many developing countries which have copied the western model. In some of these the Diploma Disease and Secondary School Sclerosis have taken almost fatal hold.

There are, I believe, two hopeful roads towards recovery: first there is still scope for vast improvement in primary education, not going back to passive parrot learning, but moving ahead — way beyond Plowden. The second road, which Tory spokesmen sometimes touch on, only to ignore its revolutionary implications, is to reduce the school leaving age (the easy part) and then to set about creating a universal but enormously diversified system of secondary and tertiary training and service options — exploded secondary education that with university courses for those who want and can attain them following a period of work and service and suitable academic preparation. Everyone would have a right to coupons for a minimum of, say, five years of secondary and tertiary education some time during their lives. A right to more could be earned in various ways.

But meanwhile how are you going to keep all those youngsters off the streets in their teens? This is not really an educational but a political problem. Usually 'they' are on the streets because their energies and talents are not wanted by **you** who ask the question. But in so far as there is an educational question it would be enormously reduced if 'they' had all succeeded in their primary and middle schools. We shall return to the problems raised by our secondary/tertiary revolution later; but now the first main question is — why not success for everyone by about thirteen?

Compulsory Success at Thirteen

The overriding objective in a developed, national educational system should be success for all in a number of basic skills: literacy, numeracy, music, graphic and craft skills and simple athletic-gymnastic attainments. Up to this stage the notion of a core curriculum makes sense; but not after. Skills such as these can be assessed quite easily and with fair objectivity. Indeed assessment can be a challenge for the children and should be a valuable source of self-diagnosis for the institution **provided** that the process is not contaminated by selection. There would have to be special provision, perhaps in superlatively staffed boarding schools for the

few, who for one reason or another, failed to make the grade. This might be a future role to which some of our preparatory schools could adapt as many, though not necessarily all, would lose their **raison d'être** once 'selective' exams are made illegal and this, as we shall see, is what should happen.

'It is important to remember that the nature of the educational process changes quite markedly around the age of 12.'

It is important to remember that the nature of the educational process changes quite markedly around the age of 12. Up to that age an educational system can be strongly normative, working, that is like medicine or law, towards widely accepted norms of what is the appropriate behaviour or level of competence agreed on by common consent. When adolescence has begun however an individual's need for the experience of autonomy soon outweighs his need for conformity and protection and at this stage the educational process should tend, like any lively culture, to develop that life, to present the past in new lights, to generate new undertakings and to foster unusual, questioning individuals. This tendency towards individual and group action is always present, even in rigid or totalitarian societies; but in open, pluralistic societies like those of North America or Western Europe, the urge towards experiencing diverse excellence and creativity needs to be given rein and the secondary and tertiary stages of education should be opened up to that end.

'Contrary to what is widely believed the main ingredient of all motivation is the individual's sense of competence . . .'

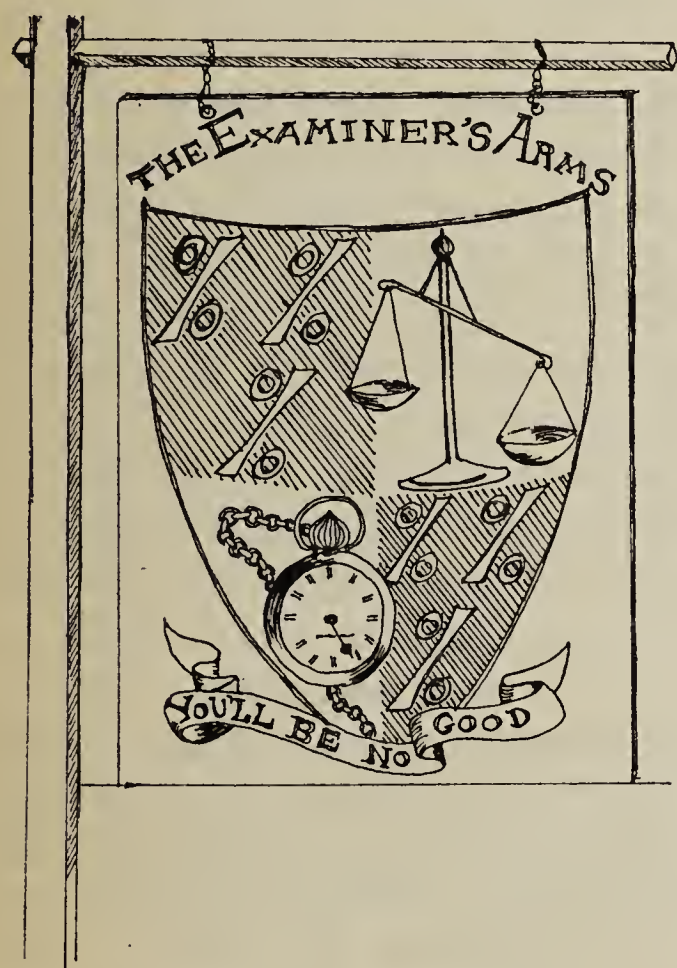
The value, in social and psychological terms, of success at thirteen for all children would be enormous. Contrary to what is widely believed the main ingredient of all motivation is the individual's sense of competence. External prods and carrots have short-term value; but if you can do something well you will probably **want** to, and very many of the failures and frustrations of teenagers' stem from an inner sense of incompetence, reinforced by the later stages of school experience — the fact, in brief, that they have had so much done to them and done so relatively little. A revolution of this kind in primary and

middle schools will not solve all the problems of adolescence, many of which run far beyond school, but it could greatly ease them and thus lay the foundations of confidence and responsibility which would be essential for the new, open secondary system.

The primary and secondary revolutions which I am proposing interlock in other ways too and they make better economic sense than might at first appear. Any learning situation in which there is strong 'motivation' is efficient because it can be self-energising. Or consider an obvious manpower difficulty: you could not reform the primary sector on the lines proposed without greatly increasing and improving the teaching-strength in the schools, and you could not open the secondary system and turn it towards work and service without creating a very large number of job opportunities. Primary education should therefore be redesigned so that there would be three young adult **school helpers** working with every fully trained teacher. And the latter could be more highly trained than at present in one or two specialist areas, as well as in general pedagogy. It was the American educator, Bereiter, who clarified the logic of this. All education, he pointed out, falls roughly into two modes — the caretaking, playful aspect and the 'instructional' aspect which is to do with the presenting of new structures of knowledge, skills, concepts, etc., at the right stage and in the best context so that these can be actively assimilated with the optimum balance of challenge, play, practice, uncertainty and reward. This second mode needs great expertise and there is evidence from some developments in education today, such as the remarkable success of Suzuki music teaching, that great possibilities of progress lie ahead if we could develop this expertise. Yet at present we demand far too much from our primary teachers, expecting them to be expert instructors, therapists, temporary mums, administrators and equipment makers — all more or less at the same time. If they could be freed from some of the simpler, but still very important, tasks to allow more time for seeing that good methods actually work, for helping those with special gifts or special difficulties, and if school child-

ren could have more opportunity for playing and practising with partly trained but responsible young helpers, working and learning within the system, then why should not all, or almost all our children, know their tables, sing in tune, read well — and **want** to?

There would of course be overlap between fully trained teachers and helpers and indeed one of the many advantages of this type of apprenticeship would be that the school helpers would be ideally placed to acquire the informal experience and the intuitive qualities needed as a foundation for subsequent periods of training; qualities which it is notoriously difficult to impart in formal teacher training and in similar professional courses.



Exploding the Secondary Schools

Education is always a mixture of doing things to learners and letting learners do things — always of course what are regarded as 'good' things. As we have seen there is a shift in adolescence towards the second term of the equation — towards autonomous and group action. For young adults (sometimes called teenagers) school is only acceptable when it is perceived as a spring board for various kinds of action. Secondary schools could once be seen, despite the cast-iron desks and the brown paint, as leading on to vistas of achievement, service and esteem. For a dwindling number of the young this is still true; but for most of those undergoing secon-

dary education the prospects ahead are not powerfully alluring: a polytechnic or university course at the end of the escalator for those who have the 'able' label, the civil and less civil services, selling, factory apprenticeships, the lump, agricultural labour and the labour exchange. It is the lack of challenge and interest which, rightly or wrongly, makes these openings seem dim. This is a problem which has been seriously over-simplified in the recent educational debates. Worried industrialists and politicians won't get far by advocating curricular changes or by giving the world of work a better image. Part of the problem lies in the huge scale and alienating nature of much of industry; but part of it lies in the schools which seem to say 'this is your lot, the die is cast'.

What kind of post-industrial world do we wish our children and grandchildren to face? One does not need to have worked long with mildly disturbed or backward children to know that unsuspected riches often lie below the surface. So I suppose we must work for a society, planned just enough, yet open enough to everyone's talents, to all their knowledge, skill and goodwill. Certainly this will mean further moves towards 'equal opportunity', but opportunity not so much for having and owning as for **doing good things** and that means doing one's share of 'good' work. An unattainable ideal! Certainly; but much more in keeping with human nature and human values than the boring alternatives, popular with some futurists and even with some socialists, of maximising or equalising everyone's chances for money and idleness.

An open society must be concerned both with a certain basic freedom and with freedom of a higher order. Michael Polanyi expressed the distinction neatly when he spoke of 'the freedom of the subjective person to do as he likes' — within the law — 'and the freedom of the responsible person to do as he must' — according to principle which he perceives. Education needs to be understood similarly at two levels at the normative level which we have discussed of bringing all children up to the basic threshold of skills which they need in order to cope with their society; but also at a higher level which merges gradually into

culture. At this level notions such as responsibility, service, adventure, creativity and commitment to ideals become central. These ideas increasingly demand personal allegiance of judgement and evaluative acts; and there is always corresponding risk of error, folly or danger. Such 'goods' cannot be shared out by edict for they must constantly be sought, rediscovered and created by people.

Up to the age of about thirteen or fourteen therefore education **can** be seen as a right — provided society is rich enough to afford it. But beyond adolescence it is nothing of the kind. Education is then something people do and make. It must be diversified, related to work, to cultural activities and to excellence in many directions so that as many people as possible can see the far horizons and wish to move toward them. The basic skills will go on being used and perfected but the essentially qualitative process should not be quantified or interrupted in order to give selective rewards and privileges. When people are to be chosen for any particular responsibility which carries with it desirable prestige or power they should be chosen mainly on grounds of what they have actually done.

What then might the young be doing in the four or five years before they reach eighteen? This is where another debate might start, but here are some suggestions. There could be four linked and interdependent elements in the new secondary education: initiation, earning, service and learning.

Initiation

Consider the first: Initiation (or orientation). At some time during the two years after leaving school all children would go on a six month residential course in a Junior College in some part of Britain or of Europe, preferably an area in sharp contrast to their own home background. There would be wide choice but successful passage through one of these courses would be a condition for various minor privileges such as: cheap student travel, early training for motor cycling and driving. The common theme of the course would be the problems, and opportunities and complexities facing men and women in

the modern world. Students would choose at least one verbal, 'left hemisphere' subject and one non-verbal 'right hemisphere' subject for intensive study. Drama, the arts and elements of Outward Bound would play a considerable part in the whole curriculum. Some of these courses would be secular and run by local authorities, others might be the responsibility of independent religious and educational foundations. There would be close links too with a national network of counselling officers whose task it would be to advise young people about all the opportunities for work, service and education which would face them on leaving the college.

Earning

Secondly: Earning. From the age of thirteen-plus everyone would be expected to earn, if not their livelihood, at least a significant part of it. Something like two million junior jobs would have to be created assuming that at any one time about half the 'secondary' population were working. It would be one of the essential tasks of industry (an alternative to taxation perhaps?), of commerce, agriculture and local government to rediscover and sustain apprenticeship roles. Small businesses and small craft enterprises would be particularly suitable in this respect and special incentives could be given to encourage the use of young learner-workers. Many unpopular, but socially necessary jobs could be done by young men and girls in their later teens, and higher levels of pay and additional educational coupons would be an obvious reward. It is interesting to think of the number of socially useful jobs which are currently being 'rationalised' out of existence but which could usefully be done by learner workers: extra postal services, more adequate care of domestic animals on farms and even — dare one say it? — domestic service, especially in hotels and in residential institutions. And there are many tougher jobs too — coal mining, deep sea fishing, street cleaning, farming, where the young could work. When state encouragement is given to the Arts it would often be in fields where the young are involved; again, cheap learner-workers could contribute to the welfare of all.

Service

Thirdly: Service. The line between productive and 'helping' work is often arbitrary but the rough criterion is clear: wherever people are below the level where they can cope — young children, old and handicapped people, or wherever some disaster or danger threatens — these are the main areas of service. For work in all such fields there would be a period of intensive (and free) training, periods of active service and longer periods of stand-by duty. Two years, including training would be the minimum contribution. The armed forces would be manned to about half their number by national service men and woman. Something like half a million school helpers would do their service in nursery schools and in the six-to-thirteen primary schools. Sea rescue, mountain rescue, the fire services, conservation tasks, traffic control, work with old people and many ancillary health tasks would be opened up for service. Discipline and training would have to be effective and it is possible so strange is the pendulum of fashion, that the ancient sentiment of patriotism might help to sustain people who serve their country and face, thereby, periods of danger and monotony.

Learning

And fourthly: Learning. A great variety of study opportunities would be made available: day release, evening classes. Open-University

type mixed media courses and periods of concentrated residential study. Car driving and maintenance courses, basic electronics, project technology and a wide range of craft and design courses would be offered and it is important in all these that we give more weight to the theoretical content. One of the greatest dangers facing the post-industrial society is the 'black box' mentality by which even highly educated people have a totally passive attitude to the tools and techniques of our culture. Except in the case of strictly remedial courses some payment — either by cash or coupon — would be required for all secondary and tertiary education. This would only cover a small proportion of the true cost — perhaps a quarter — but the proportion should remain fairly constant in all fields so that there would be an understanding of the value of what can be acquired. Many courses would have to fit into a series of modules — introductory, middle, advanced; and successful completion of one would be a condition for entry to the next. Admission to higher, university courses would, similarly, be partly dependent on skill and knowledge qualifications. But as, for most people, tertiary education would not start till they were in their twenties an applicant's record of work and service would carry as much weight as the qualifying courses he had covered. Even so however it is likely that university lecturers might have to learn to teach rather more ef-

TEACHING ABOUT HUMAN RIGHTS

Do you have occasion to teach about Human Rights — particularly the rights of minority groups? If so you would find it useful to be in touch with the Minority Rights Group, London, which has recently appointed a research fellow to enquire into ways in which Human Rights can be studied in schools. Write to Dave Hicks, c/o Minority Rights Group, 36 Craven Street, London WC2N 5NG.

TURNING POINT

'Turning Point is a network of people, mainly in Britain, Europe and North America. We share a common feeling that mankind is at a turning point, although our concerns range very widely — environment, sex equality, third world, disarmament, community politics, appropriate technology and alternatives in economics, health, education, agriculture, religion, etc.'

Details about **Turning Point**, including a free newsletter, are available from Alison Pritchard, 7 St Ann's Villas, London W11 4RU.

fectively than at present, and though they would not receive the particular brand of academic 'cream' to which they have become accustomed (and which they often complain about) they **would** have a higher proportion of students whose first interest would be **learning**.

Of course there would be muddles and risks in such a system. Some young people would play more than others; some would turn to crime — old varieties and new, such as forging educational coupons; but whatever we do now we are likely to face colossal problems of deviance, of boredom, of youthful unemployment and crime by the year 2000 and this prospect increases the need for us to explore less pathogenic systems of adolescent 'containment' than those we now have.

What would be lost? First of all the examination boards would close down. Indeed it should be an offence to set up any external examination system or ability testing bureau which claims to evaluate human potential. The truths which well-meaning boards manage to tell us from time to time are insignificant compared to the falsehood which the system as a whole constantly suggests. If only the universities could start in this direction now, following the example of the Open University, they would clear the way for many urgent reforms in the existing secondary and tertiary systems. It is interesting to note that the Chinese, who first invented mandarin bureaucracy and the external examination system which supported it, have been the first people to attempt to abolish it. The value of occasional internal, diagnostic tests and tests with an element of challenge and competition is **not** being questioned.

Public schools and preparatory schools really would begin to wither away, at least in their present form, once the selective examination system was abolished. But in an open, partially subsidised, secondary system of the kind described here, there should be a place for responsible innovation and, for private enterprise.

'Another casualty, alas, (or not alas), would be the profession of secondary schoolmaster and schoolmistress.'

Another casualty, alas, (or not alas), would be the profession of secondary schoolmaster

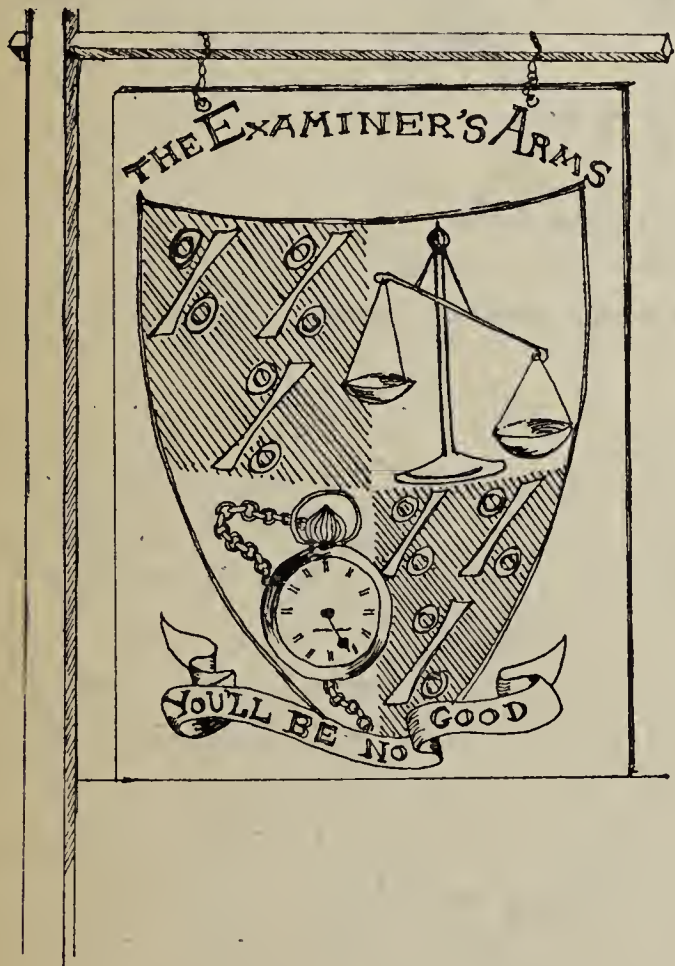
and schoolmistress. There would be plenty of opportunities for mathematicians or craftsmen who can teach, for scientists or linguists whose special interest it is to understand the structure and pedagogy of their disciplines. But once you free secondary education from the thrall of school and from the black art of sorting out alleged goodies from the alleged 'academically less able', once you do this you free teachers from their dreariest bonds. They could become interested once again mainly in students and in active knowledge rather than in testable 'facts'. Many would renew their interest in those 'frontier' problems which fringe all disciplines with uncertainty and which never cease to allure the enquiring mind. If we are to have professional organisations in the next millenium it would be refreshing if they could evolve more in the direction of learned societies which help to generate and protect the excellencies to which they are committed. But here, not for the first time, I hear the voice of my down-to-earth colleagues telling me not to be starry-eyed.

There are practical things, bearing on all this, which we could do **now**. We could generate a more critical attitude to all external exams as well as to the universities and employers who rely on these false guides. And less negatively we could welcome diversity of many kinds in our existing secondary schools. Everything that gets children out into the world of factory or workshop, river or mountain, which gets them out, not as passive spectators, **but in some active role** — all this should be encouraged. So should every possible alternative route to excellence new types of college on the pattern of Ruskin or the Bauhaus. And at the Primary level why should we not conduct one or two national experiments aiming at thirteen year old success for every child in all the core skills? Double and treble the teacher-child ratio, experiment with young volunteer helpers, give the best primary teachers their head in a wide, exploratory investigation in one of the less affluent corners of Britain! Why not?

I saw some children looking at the stocks in a museum recently and I wondered which of our present instruments of degradation

would come to be eyed with a similar curious shudder by the year 3000. At least the stocks spoke of the past — 'he — or she — has done wrong'. Our instruments of selection in education, may not mean to, but they **do**, speak of the future and say: 'the good, the best, the mysterious, is not for you, you can't make it.' Yet the truth is that he — or she — somewhere or somehow — **could**.

Notes on further reading: there is an interesting economic/political critique of formal education in the *Comparative Education Review* (February 1975), 'Education: an Ostacle to Development' by Hanf et al. The paper by Carl Bereiter 'Schools without Education' appeared in the *Harvard Educational Review* August 1972. Ronald Dore's book 'The Diploma Disease' was published in 1977 by Unwin. Some underlying philosophical and psychological issues are discussed in my 'Born Curious' (John Wiley, 1976). The quotation from Michael Polanyi is from 'Personal Knowledge' (R.K.P., 1958).



Delta Free School

Ann McNiff

Many people are already familiar with the White Lion Free School, in Islington, London. It is probably the most famous of free schools in England. However, there are other, smaller ones throughout the country, about which not so much is known.

The Delta Free School in Southampton, opened in November 1974, with four children. It now has eight children on roll, while twenty children have passed through the school in the last eighteen months. There are several reasons why children have left the school — two were referred to an assessment centre, two just stopped attending, one was too violent and was asked to leave, one left after a traumatic family incident, and one was referred to a detention centre. Most of the others left, either because they reached school leaving age, or because they returned to a state school.

The school building is a small terraced house in a rather run-down area of Southampton. There are two rooms downstairs, plus a kitchen and garden, and two rooms upstairs. One of the upstairs rooms is used for 'doing our work', and the other 'for playing about in', as Sean, who showed me around, described them. The 'playing about' room had a very impressive, wall-to-ceiling mural, painted in vivid colours. In the downstairs front room there is another one, of Humpty Dumpty. Most of the walls are also painted in bright colours, and as the school had just received a donation of paint from I.C.I., they were preparing to do more painting. Looking at the murals and the walls, I wondered how many state schools had murals inside, or brightly painted walls. I remember the last school that I taught in, a Victorian building in Inner London, where the suggestion was raised to brighten up the inside walls. The headmaster said that this would not be possible, as the inside walls could only be painted by the local authority (or rather, by painters employed by the local authority). So the walls remained their dull, lifeless, off-white colour.

At present there are three full-time teachers at the school, who are paid from a grant from the Job Creation Programme. As there is a possibility of this running out in March 1978, they are saving part of their wages, in case this happens. They estimate that the school costs about £6,000 a year to run, and have launched an almost continual appeal for financial support. In this respect, they are common to almost all other free schools, for almost all of them suffer from a permanent shortage of money.

In the past, money for the Delta School has been raised through charitable bodies, other institutions such as the University and through private donations.

Curriculum of a Free School

It is very difficult to define the curriculum of a free school, and the Delta Free School is no exception. In fact, curriculum is entirely the wrong word, as the emphasis is placed on each child choosing what s/he wants to learn. The members of Delta School say of their school:-

'Delta Free School is an alternative to state education and the ideology that governs it. We are attempting to create a situation in which children can control their own education and are free to grow and learn in their own unique and individual ways. An environment that is free of repressive morality and systems of conditioning. A school that is open and tolerant'. In practice this means that the children, after being at the school for a few months, work out their own routine. I wondered how much of a problem this was, of children adapting to this, after coming from schools where subjects were time-tabled. The teachers said that this was usually an initial problem with most newcomers, but now that all of the children had been at the school for some time, they had worked out their own routine. The working day is roughly divided between the morning — when they concentrate on the basic skills, and the afternoon — which is used for practical work or visits, although there are no hard-and-fast rules about this. Much use is made of the local community and facilities. Frequent visits are made to the libraries, factories and firms in the area, and they had recently been over to

the University computer department to do some mathematics. Visits are made easier by the fact the school has a van large enough to carry all its members.

On the day that I visited the school I arrived just before lunch time, and two of the boys (there were only boys present when I visited) were preparing lunch — beans, mashed potatoes and sausage rolls. The teachers and pupils take it in turn to prepare lunch, and also to do the washing up, as it is part of the philosophy of the school that all



The Road Ahead? (from a Delta F.S. leaflet)

members should take part in all the aspects of running it. Lunch time was a casual, peaceful affair, unlike many that I witnessed in a state school, where often it seemed to resemble a military operation. Over lunch the teachers were discussing the reading tests that had been done that morning. They said that they were very concerned about reading at the moment, as most of the children were having reading problems, and it was difficult to go on to other work while the problems remained. They were planning to go to a nearby reading centre that week to discuss other evaluation tests and reading materials.

When the boys came into the room, one of them told us, very proudly, that he had only made one mistake in his reading test, but that he also thought that the test was a bit stupid.

The others agreed with him. 'I mean, how can you have a question like "Is the red flag black?"'. Mad isn't it?', said one. The teachers seemed to agree with them, and said that there was not a really good up-to-date evaluation test, but hoped they would find out more at the local reading centre.

Informality

One of the most noticeable differences between Delta Free School and most state schools that I have visited is the casual and informal atmosphere. Everyone uses first names and this comes across very naturally, for there is very little apparent difference between teachers and taught. They all really seem to get on very well together. There are no assemblies or bells of course, for with such small numbers, things can be decided relatively easily in a group discussion. On the day that I visited, the activities for the afternoon seemed to be arranged to everyone's liking, with little difficulty. One of the boys decided that he would also like to do a reading test. After that they had planned to go and collect the promised paint, and also to see about repairing one boy's bicycle.

It is, of course, easy to romanticise a free school and the teachers at Delta School emphasised this point. In fact one of them discussed how he would like to compile a pamphlet which showed this, by going into some of the complications and difficulties that they had experienced. He said that he hoped to produce such a pamphlet sometime in the future, to give more of an insight to others unfamiliar with free schools and to give some help to those intending to start their own alternative education projects. While the teachers agreed that their work was often very demanding and exhausting, they also agreed that the Delta School played a valuable part in the community, as one of the very few places where children who were truanting, or unhappy at a state school could go.

The belt rules — OK?

John Darling

Despite a lot of critical comment, corporal punishment continues to flourish in English and Scottish schools. In England it could easily be abolished. In Scotland it could not. South of the border the cane is a dispensable frill like RE and free milk. Arguments for and against retention can be pursued rationally and purposefully. In Scotland the belt, or strap, is part of the system. You might as well press for the abolition of text-books or teachers. The best that can be hoped for is the limitation and control of corporal punishment, but even this is difficult.

Scots are supposed to be proud of their schools and anxious to preserve their distinctiveness. When it comes to corporal punishment, however, their different tradition gives cause for concern. While in English maintained schools canings are usually carried out only by senior teachers or headteachers, in Scotland every class teacher is allowed to use corporal punishment. This explains why the number of belts made and sold every year runs into several thousand.

No records of corporal punishment are kept in Scottish schools. Keeping a log book is standard practice in England, but some years ago when one Scottish LEA attempted to establish this procedure they were thwarted by stonewall teacher-power. Teachers like to pursue their professional duties without big brother watching.

There does exist a formal Code of Practice which was adopted by the teachers' unions in 1968. It has no legal force, however, and its main function seems to be to provide window dressing. The use of the belt should be subject to certain rules, it states in its preamble, 'until corporal punishment is eliminated.' The code was recently said by a teachers' leader to have been 'designed to lead to a gradual phasing-out of corporal punishment'. This is public relations stuff bearing little relation to reality.

For example, rule 3 of the code states:

'In secondary departments, only in ex-

ceptional circumstances should any pupil be strapped by a teacher of the opposite sex or **girls be strapped at all.**' (my italics)

Earlier this year a team from the Scottish Council for Research in Education checked on punishment given in the course of a fortnight in Scottish schools and found that among fifteen-year-old girls, one in twenty had been belted in the space of ten school days.

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Strap maker's price list 1977. Note the miniature straps: for playing schools?

Exceptional circumstances' clearly arise pretty frequently in Scottish classrooms. The equivalent figure for fourteen-year-old boys (who can presumably be belted without there being any exceptional circumstances) was **seven** in twenty.

Rule 6 says that corporal punishment should be used 'only as a last resort'. The SCRE survey, however, found that belting was one of the punishments most frequently used in Scottish secondary schools — as common as giving pupils lines or allocating extra work.

So bland utterances about corporal punishment being eliminated or phased out lack credibility. The public adoption of this objective by the teachers' unions is best under-

stood as a tactical rather than an idealistic stance. A commitment to elimination (by some undermined but very gradual process) is in reality a stand against abolition by law.

Per head of population there are more murders committed and more people put behind bars in Scotland than in any other European country.

In the background is the fact that Scotland has always been a violent and punitive society. Per head of population there are more murders committed and more people put behind bars in Scotland than in any other European country. Some may see a reflection of this in the recently published Pack Report on truancy and indiscipline. One of its conclusions is that 'seriously disruptive pupils' should be placed in 'day units'. Instantly dubbed 'sin bins' by the press there are envisaged as an intermediate type of institution between ordinary day schools and residential approved schools where there would be provision for assessment and treatment as well as for continued education. If necessary, the report says, pupils should be collected at home and transported to their units. This has led one sceptic to accuse the committee of supposing that 'the prospective customers would stand around like milk bottles waiting to be collected'.

Because of the present financial situation, the committee's suggestion is unlikely to be implemented on a large scale in the foreseeable future. But come independence, oil and prosperity, Scotland could find herself leading the world in the number of pupils undergoing treatment for school-rejection. In the meantime it would be wise to consider which stands in more urgent need of reform: disruptive pupils or Scottish school discipline?

The Pack Report makes three recommendations on corporal punishment:

- (i) all teachers should be informed about the Code of Practice (described in the report as a 'liberal document' with a 'good influence')
- (ii) local authorities who haven't already formalized their views on corporal punishment should formulate a policy (the nature of which is unspecified); teachers should be required to adhere to it, and

the public should be informed about it
(iii) there should be further talks between the profession and the authorities about eliminating the belt.

These are useful, but limited, points. The reason for the committee's going no further than this had better be given in their own words:

'The consensus among us is that the question of retention or abolition of corporal punishment is not of great consequence in relation to the remit of the Committee of Inquiry, because corporal punishment . . . is not very effective with the problem pupils of concern to us . . .'

'Bloggs of 3B is belted by the French teacher on Monday, the music teacher on Tuesday and the science teacher on Wednesday without anyone in the school observing the sequence except Bloggs and his mates.'

Ineffective it may be, but this scarcely justifies complacency. The SCRE survey found that among boys in the 12-14 age range, 7% were belted on three or more occasions within the space of two weeks. Although these pupils are obviously problem cases on whom corporal punishment is having no effect, it seems that they are still subjected to constant beltings.

If the SCRE findings had been available in time to inform the deliberations of the Pack committee, their report might have been more firmly rooted in the realities of Scottish schools. Instead of comments about the good influence of a liberal document what might we have found? First, a touch of scepticism about the seriousness of the profession's commitment to phasing out corporal punishment. Second, an awareness that the incidence of belting in Scottish schools is disturbingly high, leading to an authoritative declaration that an educational system in which substantial numbers of recalcitrant pupils are belted three times a fortnight is shameful.

Finally, a small but essential step towards controlling and reducing corporal punishment is that teachers be required to record beltings promptly. This procedure is bound to have

a mildly inhibiting effect on some teachers. More importantly, it helps to avoid the situation where Bloggs of 3B is belted by the French teacher on Monday, the music teacher on Tuesday and the science teacher on Wednesday without anyone in the school observing the sequence except Bloggs and his mates. A firm statement from the Pack Committee on the need for compulsory record-keeping would have been timely, for the teaching profession may have been sufficiently shaken by the SCRE figures for it to discontinue its obstructionist resistance to such reforms.

The extent to which Scottish school discipline is itself ill-disciplined is now painfully clear. What remains to be seen is whether the profession can bring itself to put its own house in order rather than leave the job to others.

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Reports on One Day Study Conferences — 'Education to what end'

(the shared search for values in school, life and learning) organised and sponsored by The English New Education Fellowship in association with The Scientific and Medical Network and the Human Development Trust

Edited by Michael Wright

Taking up the 'Great Debate' on education initiated this year by the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, and with the sympathetic interest of the Education Secretary Mrs Shirley Williams, the English New Education Fellowship and its associates organised a series of one day study conferences at six different centres in England in October and November 1977.

This report covers the four conferences which have already taken place in London, Liverpool, Bristol and Canterbury. Conferences in Newcastle and Sheffield are planned in 1978.

Each conference seems to have found a different approach to the theme of the series. In London, the speakers and participants were concerned with the fragmentation of society and of the individual, and of the need of educators to counteract this by promoting self-awareness in themselves and in their pupils. Only thus could the deeper spiritual and moral needs of mankind, neglected by our present educational system and the society it reflects, be effectively reaffirmed.

The Liverpool conference was concerned with the need to balance and broaden the curriculum, and to effectively promote necessary values in our changing schools and society. Also, the need to resolve conflicts between parents and children and schools and society.

The Bristol conference was concerned with the task of making our schools sources of reflective and creative development in their students, while the Canterbury conference was devoted to the search for alternatives within the present educational system, the need to deprofessionalize and demystify learning, and the promotion of lifelong education.

Thus, in their different ways, the Conferences succeeded in widening the 'Great Debate' from the narrow concern for more effective skill acquisition, and focused attention on neglected aspects of our educational system, especially the need to promote imagination, independence, creativity, and moral and self-awareness.

Parents and community workers, as well as professional teachers and administrators

'The need to promote imagination, independence, creativity . . .'

have been brought together, and through the informal 'workshops' which were an essential feature of each conference, learnt to know one another. Furthermore, these links and the momentum of the ideas generated, are to be maintained by follow-up workshops and meetings in the immediate future.

Thanks are due to all the 12 speakers and over 200 participants in these conferences, and to their organisers, particularly the indefatigable Secretary of the ENEF, Raymond King, and his wife, Mary, without whose sustaining interest and zeal these conferences would not have taken place. M.W.

London:

Saturday, 15th October, 1977 at the Institute of Education, London University.

Michael Wright Reports:

The Conference opened with a welcoming address to the 3 speakers and 60 delegates by PROFESSOR WILLIAM TAYLOR, Director of the Institute of Education, and President of the ENEF.

DR JAMES HENDERSON Chairman of the

WEF, then took the Chair and reminded delegates that they were there to consider ends and not means. He then introduced the first speaker.

MRS MOLLY TUBY, Editor, teacher, and practising analyst spoke on '**Analytical Psychology and the Aims of Education**'. Mrs Tuby stressed the essential need for self-awareness in both educators and educated. The command to 'know thyself' and the urge to wholeness applied to all human beings. A deeper and more comprehensive knowledge of the structure and dynamics of the psyche, which analytical psychology could provide, could ground the search for meaning in both teacher and learner. Many young people are looking for something not in any given structure or system: they need to make an inner journey of selfdiscovery, for which the teacher /analyst could be a guide. She stressed the importance of symbols in the search for self-awareness and the need for cultural aesthetic activities to 'recharge' students. There was great value in small groups, which compensated for the lack of larger structures in society and provided a framework for the individual to find and express himself. Alienation and neuroses are now characteristics of the young as well as the middle aged and elderly in our 'Waste Land' society, and alienation was the greatest barrier to the goal of a creative relationship with the world.

CATHERINE FLETCHER former Principal of Bingley and Furzedown Colleges of Education, ex-ENEF Chairman, and author, then spoke on '**The Nature of the Self: Education as Initiation**'. The search of the young for meaning and value was not new. Teachers were ultimately concerned with the initiation of the young into adulthood. There were signs that philosophy, religion, and now modern evolutionary biology (Sir Alistair Hardy) and particle physics (F. Capra) all tended to confirm that a creative process was at work in the universe. Determinism and its offshoots were defunct, and we could not comprehend the universe through intellect alone.

But man could still contact its creative source, through 'peak experiences' open to young as well as old. Students and pupils had certain perennial questions common to all

mankind: Who am I? How can I become what I am? Who is my neighbour? Is death the end? Has science displaced God? The initiated and integrated teacher should be able to help the young to find meaningful answers to these questions.

* * *

After lunch, the Conference resumed with expression of regret that one of the speakers, Dr James Hemming, was unable to attend because of illness.

DAME MARGARET MILES, D.B.E., Hon. D.C.L. former Headmistress of Mayfield School and educationalist reminded delegates that other generations had had the same anxieties, uncertainties and conflicts as the present. She wished to be positive and optimistic and to counter the debilitating pessimism with which we are surrounded: there never was a time when everything was all right. She deplored the nostalgia which sought a religious revival to rescue dead traditions and concepts. What was needed was to mobilise the resources, the imagination and vigour of the present to create values and patterns for the future. We now lived in a society where every individual was involved in a common educational experience. This is what makes the task so difficult but so worthwhile.

The media were to blame for their hypocrisy in portraying the exploits of wicked people as heroic. Our schools produced fine young people who were often more understanding and better informed than their elders. They should be listened to via discussion. Children should be persuaded to agree on a code of behaviour in an atmosphere of mutual trust and openness. Schools should strive to make their young people happy in the world.

The Conference then broke up into more informal grouping in order to promote a dialogue between speakers and delegates. Some of the points raised in this discussion were:

'Young people are often more understanding and better informed than their elders.'

'Primitive' societies with their rich lifestyles can teach our competition ridden schools and society much in showing us a community which was more **caring** and which answered the child's fundamental questions of 'Who am I?' and 'What am I worth?' in the affirmative. Our system brands too many children as of no worth.

Our society breeds too many maladjusted children who act out their violence because they cannot cope creatively with their inner conflicts. This is because these children have become hopeless and unable to accept love.

A dialogue with the student is an essential task of the creative teacher.

We should cut down the power of the examining boards and abolish 16+ exams entirely. We trivialize the abilities of bright children by exams.

Compulsory education was still necessary but more freedom was needed within the school framework.

The Conference then closed.

Follow-Ups proposed

Further meetings sponsored by the ENEF in the New Year.

Liverpool:

Saturday, 5th November, 1977 at St Katherine's College, Stand Park Road.

Geoffrey Latham Reports:

The Planning Committee for the above one-day study-conference consisted of leading educationalists in the Liverpool area.

The Committee agreed that the objectives of the conference could best be achieved through the active participation of those attending, and hence a relatively small number of people known to be interested in the topic was invited.

In the event, some forty acceptances were received, together with a number of apologies for absence, expressions of good wishes, and promises of attendance at subsequent meetings. Those present covered a fairly comprehensive cross-section of the educational community of Liverpool: primary and second-

ary teachers; school advisers; welfare officers; social workers; lecturers in art, communication, education, and religious studies; chaplains and ministers.

The opening Address was given by PROFESSOR F. H. HILLIARD, Emeritus Professor of Education, University of Birmingham, who felt that the conference was a timely event as there had so far been no reports on the basic problem we were discussing. The Crowther and Newsom Reports had mentioned comprehensive education but had not dealt with its purpose. The Great Debate had alerted people to the problem and should be seen as a prelude to a more formal consideration of it. However, as such a report may not be forthcoming, we should press for it.

Professor Hilliard selected two topics for more detailed consideration: 1) the curriculum, and 2) what values the school should encourage its pupils to think about and also take to themselves.

The curriculum in grammar schools may be adequate for the A and B streams but was too narrow for the C and D streams. Most of the teachers were single subject experts but some of the pupils were not suited to subject-based teaching. Furthermore, such teachers frequently took this approach with them if they went into comprehensive schools. New subjects, e.g. World Religions, and Environmental Studies, were not the answer; what was needed was a greater emphasis on pupil-centred education.

Should we give equal importance to educating people for work, for citizenship, and for personal fulfilment? There seemed to be less stress on the last these days, and the preparation for the other two was inadequate, especially for the less able pupils.

A balanced curriculum requires a contribution from those working outside the schools. Industry should be involved, and should have direct contact with pupils, at least during their last two years at school. A meeting should be arranged by the Government for country-wide consultation on how to get industry involved in secondary education.

Values are selected by society, and in the past the school has relied on the home to

help in the provision of a moral education. Now, it is mainly left to the schools, but how much can they do?

It is customary to think of values under three main headings:

Knowledge and intellectual achievements — truth

Artistic and aesthetic feelings — beauty

Moral activities — goodness

The relative stress on these three kinds of value has varied over the years: in the old grammar schools the emphasis was on the intellectual and moral pursuits, with only marginal concern for the aesthetic aspects of life. Moral virtues tended to be related to religious education. But what is the basis for moral teaching in the modern world with its mixed values? The situation is not made any easier by the emergence of adolescent sub-cultures, with their stress on independence and on being a generation in their own right. Nevertheless, all young people need education in values, and the basic problem is to decide how far teachers can help in that.

After Professor Hilliard's talk, the participants divided into four groups and discussed the problems he had raised until lunch-time. Each group reported in turn at a plenary session in the early afternoon.

A number of common themes emerged from the group reports, one being the apparent conflict between the school and the home. A further conflict was detected between the school and society, with each often blaming the other for the present state of the nation. These problems were reflected to some extent in the schools themselves, where the teachers and the children tended to form separate groups.

As the closing speaker was unable to be present, the general discussion continued until the conference ended at 4.00 pm. The discussion included a consideration of plans for the future and it was generally agreed that we should try to hold a meeting every term. The importance of belonging to a group that had similar ideas to one's own was mentioned, and it was felt that the present conference had enabled us to get to know each other so that we would be able to build on

'Now moral education is left to the schools, how much can they do?'

this relationship at each subsequent meeting. In keeping with this, the meetings would not need to be so long and the next one will be limited to a morning session.

Next Meeting of the Liverpool Group: Saturday, 11th March, 1978, at St Katharine's College. Duration: 10.00 am to 2.00 pm (including lunch). Topic to be arranged.

Bristol:

Saturday, 15th October, 1977 at St Mathias College Bristol.

Clive Peters Reports:

Mrs Lois Atherton welcomed everyone to the Conference and asked for a moment or two of silence to enable those present to collect their thoughts.

MARK BRAHAM of Dartington Hall, then outlined the key events which resulted in the Conference being called, and spoke with reference to a paper '**Education is not an "anything" word**'. The basic assertions made were that:-

1. Human life is both the subject of Education and the object.
2. Human evolution is intrinsic to evolution of life on this planet.
3. Man has moved from the natural (instinctual) to the self-programming way of life (i.e. developmental style). What is not inherited must be acquired from other sources to develop/adapt in ways other than chance.
4. There is a tendency for every organism to maximize its potential, so the need to learn is, therefore, always present.

The first learning task of life is physical/physiology adaption to environment. The second learning task of life is the development of responses of feelings/love. The third learning task of life is mental development, reflectivity and the application of reflectivity to practical work.

5. The progression in the educative process should, therefore, be from participation in

late childhood/early adolescence, through creative contribution in late adolescence, to constructive transformation of society in young adulthood.

The Conference was posed the question: Are our schools sources of reflective development?

DR KENNETH SMITH (Senior Lecturer, Canterbury University) was then introduced.

His theme was that we live in an age of uncertainty caused by a breakdown in communication between laity and experts who have embodied knowledge in quasi religious mysticism. It is the centralisation of organisation and power that creates barriers to the unity of human life experience and opposes the growth of a classless society. A quotation from Godwin on Political and Social Justice highlights the dangers to educative processes from political domination of an institution. Anger and conflict situations should be handled in a way that does not lead to mindless violence, yet does not suppress true feelings. The tools are there for Armageddon, or for constructive solutions to be found. One of the tasks of this conference was to urgently seek these constructive solutions.

The Conference then became more informal, and during the ensuing workshop/discussion a variety of contributions were made from Conference members.

- Fragmentation of the school routine contrasted against the need for harmony of Thinking, Feeling and Doing.
- Rebellion of many spirited and often bright pupils against system expressed as truancy: not all these 'drop outs' were inadequate and unintelligent.
- Education as helping individuals to cope with reality and, therefore, promoting creativity and oneness of being.
- The root purpose of education is to meet the primary human need, which is to be knowledgeable of being both human and spiritual.
- The purpose of education is to open our minds to streams of thought which have existed throughout history. But our task is to transcend tradition.
- The formal education service is the organisation most resistant to change out-

side of the Civil Service — it is a pedagogical Civil Service!

- The educational end is the successive transformation of consciousness.
- Can schools be transformed from within, or must the old die and new be created? If schools are obsolete, how are opportunities to be created for adolescents to reflect and make intuitive judgements. What processes other than those used in school can be educative?

Follow-ups: The Conference agreed on the following:-

1. **A letter to the Director of Education, Avon County Council, reporting the deliberations of the Conference.**
2. **An evening meeting on Tuesday, 22nd November, at 7.30 pm, 11 All Saints Road, Clifton, to discuss practical applications of ideas formulated.**
3. **A further Day Conference at College of St Mathias, Saturday, 4th February, 1978 — theme to be decided.**

A special plea was made for more active involvement by non-professionals, e.g. parents, in further meetings/conferences, i.e. root the conference in practice not theory.

Canterbury:

Saturday, 12th November, 1977 at Christ Church College, Canterbury.

Michael Wright Reports:

The Conference opened in the Lecture Theatre of the beautifully situated campus of Christ Church College with a welcoming address by its Principal, Mr Frank Hancock, then introduced the speakers, and spoke of the need, especially of active teachers, to scrutinise the educational system and not just let it rumble on. We need to search for alternatives: a theme common to all three speakers.

* * *

DR PETER LEGGETT, recent Vice-Chancellor of Surrey University, then spoke on the theme: **'The Next Step'**. He pointed out that much had been written and said about the **'How'** of education (method) but little on the **'Why'** (aims), much on means and little on ends.

Hence the title of the Conference series was most timely. Two meanings attached to the root word of education are to train and to draw out. The former has been emphasised at the expense of the latter. This corresponded to the indication of recent brain research linking left hemisphere development and activities to logical, intellectual and objective functions and right hemisphere activity to the intuitive, subjective, aesthetic and spiritual functions. We need to restore the balance which is seriously lacking in present education. Educators with vision were needed, not cynics. By altering brain functions and attitudes of mind we would alter the world in a revolutionary but non-destructive way.

DR KENNETH L. SMITH, Senior Lecturer, Kent University at Canterbury, then spoke to notes provided by MICHAEL DUANE who was absent due to illness, on **'Education for What?'**

After outlining his experience as an alternative educator within a tough Inner London Comprehensive School next door to Michael Duane's Risinghill, Dr Smith spoke of the dangers of present trends in Britain towards an elitist meritocracy defined by its own standards managed by increasingly professionalized materialistic and technocratic educators: an instrumental, manipulative educational system.

We need to overcome these trends to a 'hard ego' future by providing a 'soft ego' alternative, based on mutual aid, compassion and love. Students and pupils need to acquire literacy for communication, for action and joy and not as an end in itself.

Continuous cultural and educational reappraisal and change within prevailing cultural modes rather than political revolution were needed. This could be supplied and supported by: free schools, mutual aid networks, and small-scale automatic decentralized societies. All of which would provide children and adults with the necessary tools and supportive structures for increasing self-sufficiency rather than alienation.

The Conference then adjourned for lunch.

PROFESSOR IAN LISTER, Professor of Education, York University, then spoke on **'Alternatives in a Cold Climate'**.

His theme was that the educational boom and expansion of the 60s and 70s which had seen the growth of the deschooling and alternative education movement was now definitely over. There were not enough alternative educational centres to show people which they could visit and imitate. There was no answer at present to the problem of deschooling and paying one's mortgage. An answer to this economic problem probably lay in more flexible educational financing.

In analysing both conventional and alternative education as it is today, we needed to ask some hard questions, such as: What are schools for? Is the teacher in the modern mass education system in the business of social control? Should other groups take on teachers' tasks? Should socially 'hard' knowledge be taught in schools? How can we make our schools more democratic by making learning accessible to 'ordinary' people? How much are present universities and colleges just academic play pens where the young are put to live out their fantasy lives?

Ending on a more optimistic note, Prof. Lister asserted that there had never been a golden age in education, and that real gains had been made, such as in UK primary education by removing the 11+ exam, with the playgroup movement, in adult education, with the Open University (a major breakthrough, though there were potential dangers if it fell into the wrong hands). In the secondary sector, however, most achievements recently had been made **outside** the system. The expansion of the 'free' school model could not be engineered, but the extension of the best ideas in private minority education needed to be harnessed into the urban mass educational system where the problems lay.

'In the secondary sector most recent achievements have been outside the system.'

The Conference then became more informal as speakers and delegates gathered round a table for dialogue and discussion.

Some points raised were:

The root of our present troubles lies in too much attention being paid to rights and not enough to responsibilities.

Our schools and colleges are too large: small is not just beautiful but more efficient educationally.

A great deal of what is taught in schools and colleges serves no purpose — it is neither useful nor inspiring and should be thrown out.

We have too many status ridden and snobish hierarchies which fix people in roles — roles should be alternated.

Teachers should offer their professional skills for nothing a few hours a week and help to create a gift economy and promote skills exchanges in contrast to the present Stock Exchange.

We need to delink job selection and certification.

We should have a clear line on policy: lack of communication is a problem.

We need **voluntary** education for the under 5s — not more compulsory education. Parents could and do teach the most important initial skills, including reading.

Alternative education, where many specific skills can be learnt voluntarily and informally is cheaper than conventional schooling, 75% of whose costs lie in teacher's salaries.

Education authorities should be pushed by parents and teachers to allow more flexible educational financing to clubs and voluntary groups like the WEA.

In an era of declining schools and emptying classrooms we need to open schools out to the community.

Follow-Ups Proposed:

A group of interested delegates living in the Canterbury area are to set up an alternative skill centre for local youth under the guidance of Dr K. L. Smith.

Small group meetings of interested delegates are to be convened in the near future to pursue themes and ideas suggested by the Conference.

Reviews

Books for Children

We publish in this issue some book reviews written by children; in the hope that the authors, teachers and parents will take note of the kinds of impressions voiced by these young consumers. They are largely unedited and have been selected to represent a range of abilities. They were all undertaken willingly.

The reviews by Jean Reed are also based largely in the observations made to her by children in her class.

We are indebted to Chalk Dell Infants' School and Morgans' Walk Junior School, Hertford, for time spent on these reviews.

The book reviews in this Issue are concerned with literacy, children's books, the teaching of reading, and books for mixed-ability French language teaching. More than the usual allocation of space has been devoted to reviews in an attempt to draw from publishers a more regular flow of titles, and to provide our readers with reviews on a definite topic.

THE DEEP DIVES OF STANLEY WHALE

by Nathaniel Benchley



Pictures by Mischa Richter

A WORLD'S WORK CHILDREN'S BOOK

The following reviews were written by eight year old children in the first year of an English Junior School. The class teachers were Anita Rowe and Maggi Mason.

The Magic Egg by Marguerita Rudolph
Illustrated by Wallace Trip

I thought that this book was very nice the pictures were good as well. I liked the picture of the cockerel best.

But on the cover of the book I did not like because the egg was bigger than the animals.

Rosemary Lodge

I liked this story it was a happy story and it was not too long. The man and his wife were poor and then they became rich and I liked that because it was happy. The animals looked funny and the people looked funny too. I liked the way the egg talked and walked.

Elizabeth Pettengell

Crabs by Herbert Zim and Lucretia Krantz

Illustrated by Rene Martin

This book was very good but I think that the pictures should be coloured in. Apart from that it was very good. I liked the pictures of the shore crab best. Also I liked the pictures of all different kinds of pincers. I think that the stalked eyes look like matchsticks.

Rosemary Lodge

The Gingerbread Boy by Paul Galdone

Illustrated by the author

This is a very good story I am glad I read it. In this story different things chase the Gingerbread Boy. The pictures are very good of the Gingerbread Boy and the cows were very good. The book is a very new book that I am reading.

Cathy Coulson

Two Hundred Rabbits by Lorenzo Anderson

Illustrated by Adrienne Adams

I liked this book because it had a happy ending the pictures were colourful and you can understand the words. It was a good story the pictures looked real. The rabbits were not all the same and they looked real too. The people were all dressed differently.

Elizabeth Pettengell

Two Hundred Rabbits was very good. I liked the way they drew the rabbits. I also liked the idea of the 200th rabbit telling the story and then at the very end joining the line. The picture I liked best was the one where all the rabbits were in a line. Also I like the one of the king's legs under the chair. I like the end bit because it had a happy ending.

Rosemary Lodge

The Frog Band and the Onion Seller by Jim Smith

I like the book very very much. I like the Onions very much too. And I like the frog band I like the Frogs too and I like the frogs bicycle. And I like the pier and I like the boat. And I like the Submarine. I like the gun. And I like the Onion Seller very much I like the gold coins. I like the frogs. And Onions and the Submarines and the Onion because they are very good and well drawn and they have a lot of detail and they look very very well and I like the story very very very very very much.

Steven Lovett

The Deep Dives of Stanley Whale by Nathaniel Benchley
Illustrated by Mischa Richter

I liked the pictures and the book cover was lovely and it was a Happy story. I thought it was funny when the whale tossed the people into the air and my best picture was page 18 when they were all together.

Sacha Alstrom

The Jackdaw of Rheims by R. H. Barham

Illustrated by Lynette Hemmant

I enjoyed the story of the Jackdaw of Rheims. The pictures were lovely. I liked the picture of the monks looking to see if any one was the worse but they were not. I thought that rhyming words were ever so good. I thought the curses were good.

Lucy Errington

Crabs,

This book was very good. But I think that the pictures should be coloured in. Apart from that it was very good.

I liked the picture of the shore crab best.

Also I liked the pictures of all different kinds of pincers. I think that the stalked eyes look like matchsticks.

Infant teacher Jean Reed used the viewed books with her class of 6-7 year olds, and we publish her brief comments. All the books are published by World's Work at around £2 each. These are the kind of working notes likely to be of value to hard-pressed teachers seeking a quick verdict.

Arthur's Pen Pal by Lillian Hoban

This was thoroughly enjoyed by the class as a 'told' story, but is rather long as a story to be read by the children, even though the vocabulary is suitable. Obviously the story format is designed to help children see themselves and their social problems. This is a good idea, but I personally dislike the idea of over-humanised monkeys!

Basil and Hillary by Jane Breskin Zalben

This is a book with absolutely delightful illustrations — a real fresh outdoor feeling comes across. It was enjoyed by all the children both told and read.

The Frog Prince by P. Galdone

This is a very popular fairy story. The illustrations, however, were not liked by the children. They enjoy faces so these seemed a little strange and disappointing. I realise that they were probably meant to be ethereal. The book is well used.

Michael by Liesel Moak Skorpen

Illustrated by Joan Sandin

A book which was enjoyed by the older or more mature children, for whom it is, perhaps, more suited. Most younger children were put off by the lack of colour and the dismal appearance of the illustrations which to an adult appear rather delicate and beautiful. They do catch the mood of the book over which there is a sense of quietness.

World's Work Ltd are at this address The Windmill Press, Kingswood, Tadworth, Surrey.

Reading and readers reviewed

Eleanor Anderson

PRINT AND PREJUDICE

Sara Goodman Zimet

pp.144, £1.45 paperback

READING AND THE CONSUMER

Alma Williams

pp.110, £1.25 paperback

READING, WRITING AND RELEVANCE

Mary Hoffman

pp.108, £1.35 paperback

Published 1976 by Hodder and Stoughton in association with the United Kingdom Reading Association.

During the past twenty years reading has come to be recognised as a highly complex cognitive process involving much more than just perceptual skill. The emphasis which in the past was on the text has moved now towards the nature of the interaction between the reader and the text. There is therefore concern with the language, experiences and assumptions that the child brings to the reading task and the extent to which they are matched by the materials which are presented to him. Such changes in perspective have been accompanied by a plethora of print on the nature of the reading process and the teaching of reading.

The aim of the UKRA monographs is to collate new ideas, and according to their editor, 'to save teachers of reading from having to spend so much of their valuable time searching out relevant texts and materials'. Each monograph deals with a specific problem area.

'Print and Prejudice' is concerned with the many kinds of bias that can be found in print: a fundamental and important topic that has been neglected for too long. The first nine chapters are written by Dr Zimet and draw mainly on research from the US. The final chapter by Mary Hoffman relates the findings of the earlier chapters to the current British situation. Dealing, as it does, with such complex and sensitive topics as the nature and extent of the influence of print on attitudes and the effect on reading achievement I doubt if its reception will be neutral. Its American origins and use of jargon have already been criticized in the educational press. However, it is intended as a brief review of research to serve as an introduction to the area. As such, it would seem churlish to object to an American bias when the little research that has been carried out in this area happens to be American, or to the use of such a generally accepted term as 'self-concept'. It is in fact a clear, concise review written in such a way that the busy teacher may read it at one sitting.

As Mary Hoffman point out in her conclusion, it is sometimes argued that what is referred to in the book as 'prejudice'.

'whether racial, sexual or social, is merely a reflection of society as it is. The desire to change this content is then seen as Utopian,

the delusion of idealists.'

Whether it is or not left to the reader to decide in the light of the evidence presented in the earlier chapters.

It is to be hoped that this book may indeed be successful in raising our awareness of bias in texts and their possible affect on the children we teach.

The author of 'Reading and the Consumer' is Consultant Education Adviser to the Consumers' Association. She prefaces the book with two quotations from a Moroccan UNICEF study of literacy. The first is from a Moroccan worker who gave his reasons for learning to read as,

'So I cannot be fooled and cannot be made to pay more than what I should have to by law.'

The second is much wider

'When one knows how to read, one feels the master of one's own destiny.'

The twin themes of the book then are the practical aspects and benefits of learning to read effectively and the need to develop critical reading to assist in the processes of choice and decision.

The responsibility for developing these skills is put firmly at the door of teachers.

'Because of the considerable volume of information which the child, like the adult, receives from the mass media, it is indispensable that the teacher should teach his pupils how to sift, screen and classify this vast and heterogeneous mass of facts, inaccurate interpretations and more or less tendentious messages. (Director General of UNESCO 1975 international conference on education quoted in Williams).

The third part of the book then is concerned with the development of such skills within the framework of consumer education in schools. Inevitably there is a preoccupation with materialism, albeit with the benefit of the individual and community within a materialistic society.

An interesting aspect of this book is the way in which insights from literacy programmes in other countries have been used to draw the attention of teachers to weaknesses in the teaching of the higher literacy skills in the United Kingdom.

'Reading, Writing and Relevance' by Mary Hoffman is a collection of reports of classroom activities which in the opinion of the author, highlight opportunities for encouraging reading and the other language skills. The examples range from Infant Schools to Adult Literacy. They are not presented as models for teachers to follow but as stimuli for similar activities more directly relevant to the teachers and pupils who would initiate them.

In many ways this book considers the issues raised

by Zimet and Williams, in the context of the classroom. In the early examples reading material is derived from the children's own experiences and makes use of their language, and serves their needs, involved as it is with such important issues as favourite foods, school menus and class pets.

One example from the later stages derived from the bias of five 'difficult' girls against a group of foreign exchange visitors to their school. The teacher suggested that life in a new country might be difficult and confusing for the visitors. The end product for the girls was a booklet entitled 'Souvenir '74' and the pleasure of watching the visitors use it.

Perhaps the major contribution of the three books is their view of reading as a wide and complex process involving our effective functioning within the community as well as our personal development. Such a view cannot be contained within the narrow ritual that reading may so easily become in the classroom.

READING AND LOVING

Leila Berg

pp.136, £2.75 Cloth, £1.20 Paperback

Published by Routledge & Kegan Paul 1977

For Leila Berg success in reading is concerned with belief in yourself, joy in each other, and confidence in dialogue. 'Reading and Loving' is an ebullient and sensitive elaboration of this central theme.

There is no point in the text at which I disagree with the author, in fact I actively endorse what is written, but I do not find the style either attractive or easy to read. I fear that only the most enthusiastic and committed will persevere to the end. Some of the early passages, such as the following extract, may serve to alienate the reader who might well have approached the book with some suspicion.

' . . . a baby born here will be laid on his mother's naked, exultant body, still himself naked, slimy and bloody, the umbilical cord still pulsating and uncut between them, and that as he draws in his first air and shouts with life his mother will hold him skin to skin, heart to heart, half-crying perhaps with the overwhelming joy of hard achievement.'

The publishers claim that it is designed for everyone who delights in babies and children, in talking and listening, reading and writing. I wonder if it has much to say to them that is new. Nevertheless, it is refreshing to find a book that stresses the interaction between child and adult in the reading process.

THE HEINEMANN GUIDED READERS

Series Editor: John Milne

Beginner Level:

B1 RICH MAN, POOR MAN

T. Jupp, pp.29, 27 pence

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P. Prowse, pp.29, 27 pence

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B. Tulloh, pp.72, 45 pence

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Charles Dickens, pp.122, 45 pence

U7 THE GREAT PONDS

Elechi Amadi, pp.89, 45 pence

Heinemann Guided Readers: Handbook by John Milne
pp.28. Published 1976.

The readers are intended for young people who are learning English as a second language. The books are attractively presented and consist of a number of original books which have been specially written for the series ('Rich Man, Poor Man' by Jupp) as well as a number of rewritten books ('The Red Pony' Steinbeck). Almost all are by modern authors, dealing with topics of current concern, in the language of today. Fiction titles include thrillers such as 'The Raid' by Gylan Frewer. There are also a number of non-fiction titles including 'The Olympic Games' by Bruce Tulloh. The cultural backgrounds range from 'The Great Ponds' by Elechi Amadi, set in Nigeria, to 'Death of a Soldier' by P. Prowse set in Northern Ireland. The editor of the series claims that students of English as a second language are interested in the way of life of young people in England. A number of the books then have a range of English cultural settings which should provide a wealth of material for discussion. The need for discussion is particularly important at the beginner level where there might be a tendency to accept oversimplified stereotypes. It is a pity that the author of 'Death of a Soldier' seems rather confused himself about the use of terms such as English, Britain and United Kingdom.

The readers are carefully graded in four levels Beginner; Elementary; Intermediate and Upper. Attention is given to style and interest as well as to control of information, structure and vocabulary.

LANGUAGE ACROSS THE CURRICULUM

Michael Marland

pp.309, £6.80 cased, £2.95 paper

Heinemann Education

Here is the answer to those critics who complained that the Bullock Report on literacy in Britain's Schools, 'A language for life' called on schools to develop a language policy across the curriculum but gave them no practical guidance on how to go about it. The contributors to this volume provide this guidance in abundance for those in secondary schools who wish to develop their own language across the curriculum policy. The book is divided into three parts:

I 'Towards a Whole School Language Policy'

II 'The Components of a Policy'

III 'Putting it into Practice'.

It is essentially a practical book and there are examples of school language policy documents contained in the appendices. There are also specialist contributions. Dr Gatherer's excellent review of 'Language and Education' provides an introduction to an extremely complex area which was dealt with at only the most elementary level in Chapter 4 of the Bullock Report. Keith Gardner and Colin Harrison of the Schools Council Effective Use of Reading Project discuss the place of reading in the pupil's use of language. Irene Robertson of the Schools Council Language Across the Curriculum (Case Studies) Project considers the use of talking in assisting learning in science. Nancy Martin of the Schools Council Writing Across the Curriculum Project looks at writing and the problems involved in initiating a language policy. Douglas Barnes of Leeds University discusses monitoring of communication for learning and Colin Harrison provides practical advice on the development of a screening test of reading attainment at lower secondary level. Ann Dubs, Head of the Reading Centre at Woodberry Down School provides a detailed section on phonics.

Michael Marland claims that it is not intended as a blueprint for school policies. Nevertheless it is much more of a manual to be dipped into than a book to be read from cover to cover at one sitting. As he points out the most difficult study skill is 'to get from a book what is wanted without a complete read from page one onwards.' Unfortunately, the organization, presentation and lay-out of this book militate against the easy extraction of information from it. There is little difference in size and type of print used for chapter titles, headings and sub-headings. In some cases more than one author has contributed to one section, it is not always clear to the reader, without reference to the index or the contents table who is writing. It is also confusing to find the heading 'Conclusion' at the end of a sub-section but no conclusion at the end of a chapter. For a book which is intended as a source of information for practising teachers, who will probably be reading it after completing lesson preparation and marking, how can the publishers justify the use of minute print in the index.

Obviously decisions have been made with regard

to economy and it is amazing that so much useful material has been gathered together in a well-bound volume for only £2.95. It must certainly be the 1977 education book 'best buy' as regards value for money. My concern is: having been bought, will it be read?

It certainly deserves to be, but in many ways it presents for the reader the difficulties of a poorly constructed worksheet.



2. Always have a paper and pencil handy during discussions.

3. Ask for anything you do not understand to be explained.



4. If two people have misunderstood each other, help them out.

5. If someone has said something which you think is important, remind the group about it.



6. Always let other people 'have their say', even if you are bursting to say something.

Discussion ideas from 'Language across the Curriculum'

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READING MATTERS: SELECTING AND USING BOOKS IN THE CLASSROOM

ed. Moira McKenzie and Aidan Warlow

pp.110, £1.25

Published 1977 by Hodder in association with the Inner London Education Authority

Reading Matters: selecting and using books in the classroom, edited by Moira McKenzie and Aidan Warlow, Hodder and Stoughton in association with ILEA 1977, £1.25, 104 pages.

The subject is dealt with clearly, concisely and authoritatively under the headings:

Why have a classroom collection?

What does the collection contain?

Organising and using the collection.

It is an excellent introductory book for students and teachers; reasonably priced and providing a very pleasant evening's read as well as a wealth of useful advice and suggestions for further reading. This is a delightful book based on a thorough knowledge of books and children.

SERVEZ-VOUS

by Hans Kiil, 1977, 75p

IN THE SHADOW OF THE EIFFEL TOWER

by Roger Savage, 1977, £2.25

PASSEPORT POUR LA FRANCE D'AUJOURD'HUI (BOOKS 1 & 2)

1977, £1.50 each, by M. E. Mountjoy

(All published by Edward Arnold)

Against the fictional background of a family's need to visit France, because of the father's job as an instructor in the training department of a Michelin tyre factory in Stoke, England, Roger Savage has written a relevant textbook about Paris and modern French life. 'In the shadow of the Eiffel tower' is well illustrated with photographs and has enough material for advanced pupils, while at the same time providing vital background information for beginners. The second part of the book deals with the language itself and underlines the need for relevance in all language teaching. This book, in a natural way, is an excellent eye-opener for any pupil. M. E. Mountjoy's 'Passeport pour la France d'aujourd'hui (Books 1 and 2) is a more factual account of various aspects of French life with language material contained in each chapter. It has useful exercises to increase comprehension of the language. Hans Kiil's 'Servez-vous' is a complete contrast. In an almost over-simplified way, it provides very short chapters in French with comprehension questions as a background for basic conversation and situation work. It is a pity that the first chapter deals with colours, since, with black and white illustrations, the effect may be confusing.

D.O.

NOTES ON REVIEWERS

Eleanor Anderson

Mrs Anderson is Lecturer in Education at the Hertfordshire College of Higher Education. She holds the Teacher's Certificate of Moray House Edinburgh and the B.A. (Education Studies) of the Open University. She has taught in primary, secondary and special schools, and is at present undertaking research on 'the reading behaviour of a group of children of families of West Indian origin.

David Oliver

Mr Oliver is Head of Modern Languages at Chatteris Village College in Cambridgeshire, having starting a career as a computer programmer and before doing the Post-graduate Certificate in Education at Balls Park College, Hertford. His first degree is of Southampton University. He has also taught French and Spanish in a boys' comprehensive school.

KEEPING UP-TO-DATE FREE-OF CHARGE

One of the problems when teaching about contemporary world affairs is that it often seems difficult to get hold of up-to-date facts, and to keep in touch with specialist thinking.

Another problem is often that of expense — existing school budgets may make it difficult or impossible to buy new materials.

A way of tackling both these problems at once is to make sure that one is on the mailing list for certain publications available free of charge from international agencies. These include the following.

Unicef News — attractively designed visually, and with brief and anecdotal articles for the non-specialist reader. Available from 46-48 Osnaburgh Street, London NW1 1YD or United Nations, New York 10017.

Ideas and Action — descriptions of practical projects in developing countries, with emphasis on community development. Available from FAO, 00100 Rome, Italy.

Uniterra — useful statistics on environmental issues, and quotable news cuttings from around the world. Available from PO Box 30522, Nairobi, Kenya.

CCPD Newsletter — an annotated listing of books and booklets on development, including free ones, enlivened by striking comments, quotations and cartoons. Available from PO Box 66, 150 Route de Ferney, 1211 Geneva, Switzerland.

Development Dialogue — an academic journal, with plenty to interest and stimulate the non-specialist reader. Available from Dag Hammarskjöld Foundation, Övre Slottsgatan 2, 752 20 Uppsala, Sweden.

The International Extension College

The alternative to nothing

Nick Peacey

You get a friendly welcome at the English offices of the International Extension College. Tea and digestive biscuits are at hand; and the two UK based directors, Hilary Perraton and Tony Dodds are generous with their time. These gentlemen are the missionaries of distance teaching; evangelists for the creation of new models for education for the developing world.



What is distance teaching? Many of our readers will know of the UK Open University. 'IEC' says its pamphlet **Food from Learning**, 'comes from the same intellectual stable as the Open University'. In fact IEC developed from the National Extension College set up by Michael Young as pilot and stimulus for the foundation of the Open University. NEC faced so many queries from the developing world about teaching techniques using correspondence and radio that the creation of an international service and advisory agency seemed important.

But I have still not told you what distance teaching is. It is an educational method in which teacher and pupil never or rarely meet; the teacher puts the teaching programme into some form of product which can be transmitted to the learner for use. The medium of transmission can be the written word, as in a correspondence course, or it may take post Gutenberg forms — radio, tele-

vision, film, audio tape, film strips/slides.

The IEC itself has done most of its work in Africa — Mauritius, Botswana, Lesotho and Nigeria are the names that come up most frequently in conversation. This has meant that the media available, — cheap, easy and effective — have been the written word and the radio transmitter and receiver. But the written word and the radio and what they imply are not the whole distance teaching method as envisaged by IEC. They include what they call the 'face-to-face element'. Teachers? Yes and no. The teachers may meet the students at occasional residential sessions at tutorial centres; but often enough the face to face sessions are not with 'professionals' but with a group of friends, neighbours, teacher or others, who are learners just like themselves. They meet to exchange views and clarify ideas concerning the broadcast material available to them. There may be a group leader, but he or she need be no more educated than the rest of the group, though almost essentially group leaders must be literate. Their skills are those of the discussion leader rather than those which are, as it were, the 'subjects' of the broadcast teaching. They are certainly not expecting to be discussion leaders for the rest of their lives . . . and are frequently elected by the group for a specific meeting or course of meetings.

Hilary Perraton: There's a little bit of evidence from Botswana suggesting that housewives and farmers were better group leaders than primary school teachers. But it's only a very very tentative finding, that.

I came to the IEC with my head well stuffed with conceptual maps appropriate to education in the developed world. Two outstanding peaks on my particular map are those labelled 'traditional education' and 'alternative education'. (Rather like what happens to success-

ful treason, I suppose the alternative educational peak unit, by definition, must be lower than the traditional educational peak.) In what sense was distance teaching alternative I wondered?

Tony Dodds: The position still remains as far ahead as we can see that in third world countries a very high proportion of people are never going to go to primary schools . . . If you're talking about an alternative to primary school you're talking about an alternative to nothing.



The developing world for all sorts of reasons has looked to the developed world for models of education. The overwhelming model on display is the teacher/student/classroom at primary, secondary, tertiary level and that's the one that so many of its leaders want. But the money's just not there. So they come to the IEC and others with expertise on distance teaching to look for a cheaper way of doing things. Is distance teaching cheaper than the traditional way of doing things? IEC says it is — and that the major advantages of distance teaching are economic. The comparison between the two types of teaching is however enormously complicated. Sometimes it's just impossible: distance teaching can tackle tasks which traditional methods could never take on (as in the IEC's work in Botswana on tribal grazing lands which involves one sixth of the country's population). Equally, when speaking of adults it is hard to determine precisely what figure should be set on a man's not working — the cost of what he's not doing — while he follows an educational course and what figure should be set on the profit he may bring to the country once educated. It's economically murky. So how can they say it's cheaper?

Hilary Perraton: Educational budgets have 60%/80% of their costs, typically, falling in teachers' salaries. If you can save on that at some point your figures are going to come out right. What part is going to depend on the scale you're working at. You've got to work on a scale big enough to pay for writing of radio programmes putting them out, writing and printing materials and where the lines will cross is going to vary from place to place.

Tony Dodds: In the sorts of systems one's talking about one is not in fact creating institutions in terms of buildings and organisations and so on. In most cases one is trying to utilise existing things. So you're using less expensively trained and paid people — and you're using existing buildings and institutions.

The Open University apparently works out comparatively cheap partly because it makes use of the expensive capital investment in British Universities. And when some Middle East refugee camps tried an experiment where they ran teacher training by correspondence side-by-side with residential teacher training. This was straight teaching for formal examinations. Correspondence worked out costing 50% of the other types of course. Certainly IEC would argue that 40%-60% savings can be achieved over traditional methods of formal education.

The economics may sell distance teaching to governments, but the readers of this magazine are idealists. So I want to know if they thought distance teaching was actually a better method of educating people than the traditional one. Hilary Perraton thought that for primary school age students — he was thinking of people of up to 13/14 years of age no better or cheaper method than the primary school had yet been discovered.

He based his case on the nature of the knowledge needed for groups who were going to survive and have power over their lives in the modern world.

. . . school curricula include things like the three Rs which are essentially abstract, and which are quite different from the kinds of things that people were learning from their parents and grandparents . . . I think one

needs some sort of social organisation for children of that age to study those things. You can't do it, I suspect, with the less structural systems that do work with the same kind of things with adults . . .

Tony Dodds: My hunch is that distance teaching methods are less usable by young kids in a non-institutionalised situation than they are by older people . . . (Nothing that's been said) is to suggest that these primary schools as such are an institution that can't be improved and shouldn't be improved . . .

Both felt that distance teaching educationally comes into its own with adults and young adults.

Tony Dodds: As far ahead as we can see a high proportion of people in for example, Nigeria and Tanzania are never going to go to primary school . . . and even when some get primary school education they'll still not have secondary schools. Distance teaching may well have to be the answer for those who've missed secondary school as well as for those who need 'basic education' having had nothing at all.

If you are talking about providing basic education for adults there are all sorts of arguments, both economic and pedagogical, for changing the content of the education up to a point. You are still covering the skills and concepts of a good primary course but you're doing it with people in positions where they ought to be utilising those skills. So you start changing the ways in which you're teaching . . . so you teach science in terms of fertiliser and the biology of children's diseases. . . .

All good standard education stuff — so where did the distance teaching come in?

Tony Dodds: Where distance teaching comes in is that you can probably do it over a wider area and to people in their remote homes and villages — whether this means they are miles and miles away over a remote range of mountains or remote because they're living in a slum in Lagos which no-one is prepared to go to to teach them. You're taking it to where they are actually facing their problems and you can do it by distance teaching — and it can be done in theory over a very wide scale. It hasn't been done in

Africa over a very wide scale — in any sense creating an alternative system; it has to a greater extent in Latin America in the radio schools. In Columbia in particular on a very large scale, with primary equivalent or something that is the equivalent to basic education but related to health, to jobs, to community organisations.



That you can do it on a very large scale in Africa seems borne out by various experiments like the one on tribal grazing in Botswana, like health education campaigns in Tanzania and so on. . . .

But I was still unsure that this methodology wasn't still just knowledge — bombing: no dialogue between the distance teacher and the taught, just a disembodied voice floating down the air-waves, from between the lines, up from the cassette . . . You couldn't control it; you were first its object.

They had had this question before. Their answers were patient and neatly-wrapped: Essentially distance-teaching media material arrives with you as a product. It's for use. Kick it around; discuss it; chuck it out. It's yours to do what you like with. You're the subject, not the object. It's the basis of dialogue between you and your fellows. The real object situation is sitting listening to a teacher in a classroom, isn't it? In any case any distance-teaching system which doesn't have a decent feedback system is not worth the megahertz it's banded in.

I was still intrigued to know how they saw their ideal education system. They would use an amalgam of distance teaching and conventional classroom methods.

Tony Dodds: Even where you have a fully institutionalised system distance teaching has a role to play; the two are not to be seen as alternatives but very much as meshed together.

Hilary Perraton: It's very nice when we have this. Personal example: I want to improve my Russian which is twenty years rusty. Living in Cambridge I have the option of going and joining a class at the Tech. or going and using the language Lab at the University which is a free access and, if you like, a distance teaching system. Which I choose and which is right for me depends on all sorts of personal questions and it's very nice to have that position of choice.

Finally I wanted to know just what they felt about distance teaching as it was working in the developed world. They knew most about Britain and of course approved of the Open University. I knew that you couldn't do what the Colombians did and just buy a radio transmitter and start an independent educational station. Was that why distance teaching, outside the OU, seemed so undervalued and unimaginatively used in the UK?

They were unanimous in their feelings that it was much more a question of how any new educational service would be used. If you established a new distance teaching set-up — where would you go to establish your local group meetings? They felt that you would call upon the already established adult education and further education network. And only a very particular sort of person goes to adult education colleges. . . .

Hilary Perraton: A huge network — and yet I suspect that there's an awful lot of people that aren't in touch with it. Now if you had started like Colombia in 1947, in Botswana in 1977 you haven't got all those organisations in the way . . . you don't have institutions there which you feel ought to be doing these things but by and large aren't. . . .

Readers wishing to know more of the work of the International Extension College than we were able to include in one brief article should write to them at 131 Hills Road, Cambridge CB2 1PD England.

The attention of those living in the UK is drawn to two interesting distance teaching projects now being broadcast in co-operation with independent TV networks. 'Just the Job' (NEC/Westward TV) is aimed at unemployed school leavers and has startled its devisers by stimulating 2,000 enquiries in the first four weeks of broadcasting to a comparatively small region of the UK.

'Make it Count' (NEC/Yorkshire TV) is being shown throughout the UK from January 1978 and aims to improve the mathematical skills of those whose school careers in numeracy were non-existent or disastrous. There are workbooks, puzzlebooks and a handbook for the training of non-professional tutors — in addition to the material broadcast on television.

The written back-up material for both these programmes is imaginative and well worth study by educationists. Write to the National Extension College, also at 131 Hills Road, Cambridge. CB2 1PD.

New Era Report for 1977

The previous report was given at the Sydney Conference in August 1976 and appeared in the New Era on p.26 — January 1977.

There follows the gist given at the AGM of the WEF held at the London Institute of Education on 22 October, 1977.

This year has seen a coming together which it is hoped is reflected in the vitality of the journal. On the one hand the Ideas Board now appoints a sub-group twelve months in advance to plan, solicit and edit articles on a special theme, while the whole Board assembles after each issue for a 'post-natal examination'. The great merit of Ideas, from its inception in 1967, has been as a curriculum magazine concerned with what happens today and tomorrow, predominantly in secondary school classrooms in the UK. Since 1976 Ideas has been incorporated in the New Era; they have not just laid side by side but interchanged content, in such a way that a duet, even a duel, has been performed.

The World Studies Bulletin has been encapsulated by the New Era in a different and in a remarkable way this year. For Robin Richardson has edited both halves and he has, as it were, danced, with himself as partner, so that the essential and welcome practicality of the former has been supported by the theoretical insights and analyses of the latter. Towards the end of 1978 we are about to see a duet between WSB and Ideas.

The New Era itself for 50 years had single editors: now it has six, the newcomers in 1977 being Nick Peacey of the ENEF School Without Walls group, and Michael Wright, a physicist at Goldsmiths'. Since its foundation the New Era has been concerned with what has already been mentioned above and also with young children and their parents, not only around the world but in the future society they are likely to inhabit in the next decade and the next century.

The editors are at the moment conscious of three tasks in bringing out this international journal.

Firstly, the **ten associate editors** personally known to each other in Asia, Europe, North America and Australasia comprise a team which, with proper planning, can together

produce cross cultural studies of the educational questions of the day. The WEF has wide and unique untapped research possibilities here.

Secondly, the editors mourn the death of Alice Beard whose **International Bulletin**, edited in New York, seems fated to die with her. But they plan to distribute its last issue as a memorial to her and henceforth to include regular news of Section activities and profiles of prominent individual members. Please don't wait to be asked: send material to Nick Peacey straight away.

Thirdly, the journal strengthens the Fellowship, and vice versa. We appeal to readers and to Section Secretaries to take special steps to **gain new readers** and to arrange, as the Indians and Japanese do, for a regular bulk order of, say, 30 copies each month at 20% discount, postage free. At present, with stringent economy and unpaid work, we break even on a print order of 2000 copies per month. The message of the WEF, as enunciated by our Chairman in his Letter, needs to be spread much more widely. Double or five times the readership would be a step in the right direction, and the financial gain could be spent on better layout, planning and presentation of the journal as well as practical schemes for promotion.

Antony Weaver
Coordinating Editor
London, 21 November, 1977

Ideas Board Members (concluded)

Michael M. Wright (School of Science & Mathematics) M.Sc. in Ultra-Violet Spectroscopy, is a lecturer in Physics. For some years has been a member of the Ideas Board and since 1977 a New Era editor. He has travelled widely in Europe, Africa and the Americas and was a research fellow at the University of Victoria, British Columbia.

Antony Weaver (School of Art & Design) Since 1971 Senior Lecturer in Education, Art Teachers' Course; and co-ordinating Editor of the New Era. B.A. Cambridge; Education Diplomas, London; D.Phil., Oxford. Taught for 15 years in independent, local authority, and special schools for the maladjusted in or near London and in France. Engaged in teacher training since 1956. Followed Bertrand Russell to prison as non-violent anti-war demonstrator. Publications: 'They Steal for Love'; 'War Outmoded'. Married to a Russian, Alla Perepletnik.

Notes on editors and associate editors appeared in the New Era for 1976, pages 32, 33 and 160.



Members of Ideas Board at January 1978

(each represents a School or Department of Goldsmiths' College, University of London).

Rex Andrews (School of Humanities & Performing Arts)

Married with four teenage children, teaches English at Goldsmiths' College. His interests in literature, communication media and semantics have been furthered by invaluable periods of secondment with the BBC School Broadcasting Council and the London School of Oriental and African Studies. He is currently pursuing research into the relationship between literature, dogma and education.

Rob Brazil (School of Art & Design)

Born London. Grammar School education, followed by service in the Army, 1939-45. Japanese prisoner-of-war 1942-45. Studied at Goldsmiths' College and Central School of Art. Has taught Design in London Art Schools and Architecture Departments, now Senior Lecturer in Graphic Design at Goldsmiths' College. Freelance Graphic Designer and writer for film animators and the BBC. Regular BBC Schools Broadcaster. Formerly Chairman, Society for Education through Art and Member of Schools Council Art Committee. Visiting Assessor to Universities in UK and West Africa. Married (now widower) with four children.

James Breese (School of Education)

Born in Southwark and educated at a Preparatory School in Dulwich and at the Kings School, Canterbury before going up to Trinity College, Oxford, where he read 'Greats' during the war. He taught in Independent Schools, mainly Classics, and at Alleyne's School, Stevenage, during which time he took a Degree in psychology at Birkbeck College. He is at present a senior lecturer in education in the postgraduate secondary department. He is married, with two sons, and has interest and experience in counselling, church work and writing. He is a founder member of the Association for Teaching Psychology of which he is Hon. Secretary.

Prof. Maurice Craft (School of Education)

Goldsmiths' Professor of Education in the University of London, and Head of Dept. of Advanced Studies in Education since 1976. Born London 1932. Educated at LCC elementary school and Colfe's Grammar School, Lewisham SE13; London School of Economics, (B.Sc. Econ.); School of Education, Trinity College, Dublin (H.Dip.Ed.); London Institute (Acad. Dip.Ed.); Dept. of Sociology, Univ. of Liverpool (Ph.D.). Married with 2 daughters

(14 & 16). Schoolteacher in London (1956-60). Head of Dept. of Sociology, Edge Hill College of Education, Lancs. (1960-67). Senior Lecturer in Education, Univ. of Exeter (1967-73), Prof. of Ed., Chairman of the Centre for the Study of Urban Ed., La Trobe Univ., Melbourne (1973-75). Research into family values, and school welfare provision. Publications include **School Welfare Provision in Australia: a national survey** (in press); **Family, Class and Ed.** (1970); **Linking Home & School** (2nd ed. 1972); **Guidance and Counselling in British Schools** (2nd ed. 1974).

Fiona B. Currie (Acting Secretary)

Born Cheshire 1954. Parents both artists, sister an antique dealer on the Portobello Road, brother-in-law a naive painter and photographer. Education: Altrincham Grammar School, Goldsmiths' College where she followed a Bachelor of Education Hons. degree. Etchings exhibited at Portland Gallery, Manchester. Keenly interested in literature, children and photography.

Jack Jones (Goldsmiths' College Association, i.e. ex-students)
Headmaster, Lessness Heath Primary School, Belvedere, Kent.

Norman Kirby (School of Education)

Harold Marchant (School of Adult & Social Studies)

Mary Stiasny (Sociology Department)

Of Welsh origins, though lived in England almost always. Degree at the London School of Economics, followed by Education Certificate at Goldsmiths'. Taught Social Studies at Holland Park Comprehensive School before becoming specifically involved in the Methods Courses at Goldsmiths'. Married, with a small son. Interested in East European Education systems.

Leslie A. Smith (School of Education) B.Sc.(Econ.), F.C.I., F.R.S.A., Cert. Ed., Born Essex 1922; married Joan (Reilly) 1943 one son, Mark. After war-time active service with RAF and a career as a cost accountant, entered teaching in 1949. Became headmaster Essex Secondary School, 1957; co-founder of the Curriculum Laboratory, University of London Goldsmiths' College, 1966. Founder-editor of IDEAS (1966) and co-editor of the New Era since 1976. An educational researcher at national and international levels for twenty-five years; and recently, Commonwealth Visiting Fellow to Australia. Co-founder, Teachers Center at Greenwich, Conn., USA; Hon. Life-member Irish Ass. for Curriculum Development; Principal Educational Consultant, Guardian Overseas Education, (Newspaper Group).

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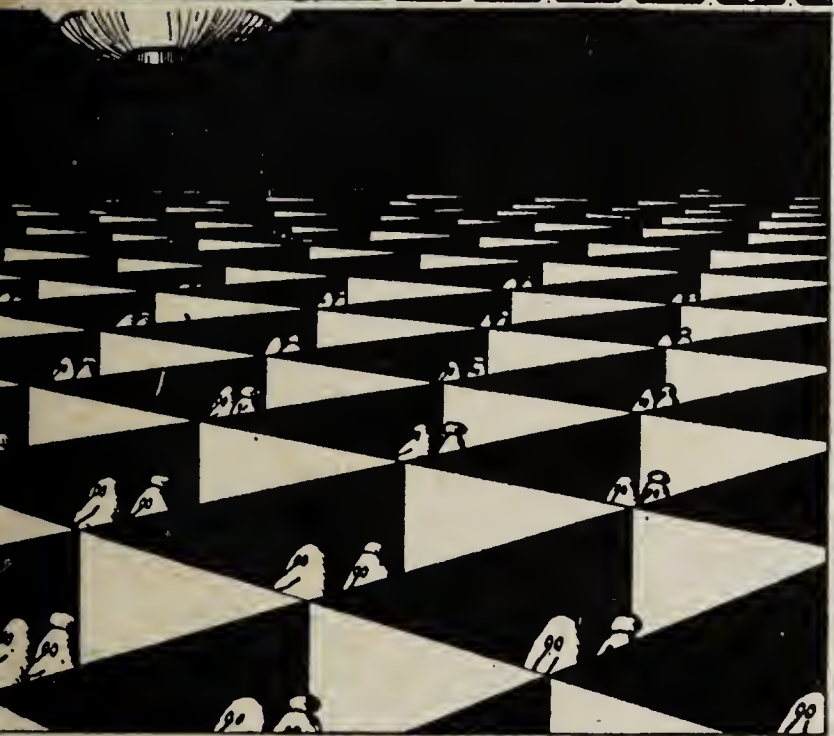
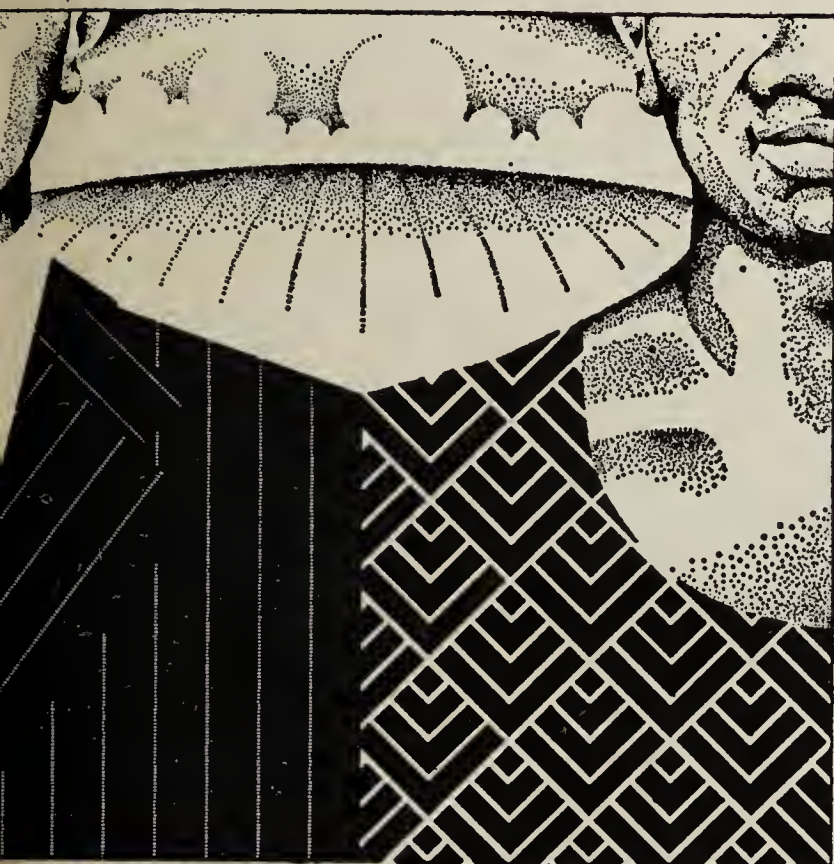
THE NEW ERA

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Editorial: 'varied fellow-creatures'

Country bumpkin, yokel, rustic, peasant, clodhopper, hillbilly, pot-walloper: the urban middle-class has used a variety of words and phrases over the years to refer to the people who provide their food. A term in Thomas Hardy's Dorset was Hodge.

In **Tess of the D'Urbervilles** Hardy describes how Angel Clare, a middle-class intellectual, goes to work and live alongside a group of farm-labourers:

The conventional farm-folk of his imagination — personified by the pitiable dummy known as Hodge — were obliterated after a few days' residence. At close quarters no Hodge was to be seen . . . His host and his host's household, his men and his maids, as they became intimately known to Clare, began to differentiate themselves as in a chemical process . . . The typical and unvarying Hodge ceased to exist. He had been disintegrated into a number of varied fellow-creatures — beings of many minds, beings infinite in difference; some happy, many serene, a few depressed, one here and there bright even to genius, some stupid, others wanton, others austere; some mutely Miltonic, some potentially Cromwellian; into men who had private views of each other, as he had of his friends; who could applaud or condemn each other, amuse or sadden themselves by the contemplation of each other's foibles or vices; men every one of whom walked in his own individual way the road to dusty death.

It is a remarkable and beautiful description of how 'pitiable dummies' — what in more recent years we have come to call 'negative stereotypes' — can dissolve and disappear; and can be replaced by 'varied fellow-creatures'.

The experience described by Hardy is as precious nowadays as ever it was — in some respects it is perhaps even more desirable than before, in view of the increasing inter-

dependence of the modern world, and the increasing damage which conflict between human beings can cause. It is an experience which teachers in schools and colleges may reasonably hope for, and may reasonably plan towards, for their pupils and students. But what in practical terms — what next Monday morning — are teachers to do? How can they translate, or begin to translate, Hardy's poetry into the language of educational aims and objectives, curriculum content, pedagogy, evaluation, and all that?

It is with questions such as these that all the articles in this issue of **The New Era** are concerned. First, Judith Torney and Thomas Buergenthal recall some of the main research findings on the ways in which children and young people develop images and stereotypes of other countries. This is followed by a discussion by Mary Worrall of the 'pitiable dummy' to be found in many Western textbooks and educational materials about the third world.

There are then four articles dealing with specific classroom approaches. Gajendra Verma and Christopher Bagley report on their recent research into teaching about race relations. Dave Hicks describes a course for student teachers on poverty and injustice. Robert Aspeslagh outlines a peace education project in the Netherlands. John Rogers describes his use of games and exercises in second language teaching in South-East Asia.

Finally, the article on world religions by Robert Jackson recalls some of the mystery and poetry evoked by the quotation above from **Tess of the D'Urbervilles**. Each of our varied fellow-creatures is scandalously mortal. The uniqueness of each is beyond imagining. The language of teachers and researchers — 'negative stereotypes', and so on — is usefully challenged sometimes by that of poets and prophets: 'pitiable dummy — beings of many minds, beings infinite in difference.'

The Young Person's View of World Society: a review of research findings

Judith Torney, University of Illinois, and Thomas Buerghenthal, University of Texas, USA.

'International education', 'global education', 'development education', 'multi-racial/multi-cultural/multi-ethnic education', 'peace education', 'world studies': these phrases, and others along similar lines, have come into increasing use during the last 15 years or so.

Whichever phrase one uses to describe one's work, and whatever one's special emphasis and concerns, it is useful to be aware of recent research findings in the general field. This article by Judith Torney and Thomas Buerghenthal, based on a paper originally prepared for the United States National Commission for UNESCO, reviews research in several different countries.

The article is of considerable interest and importance in its own right. It also serves as a valuable introduction to each of the other articles in this Issue of *The New Era*.

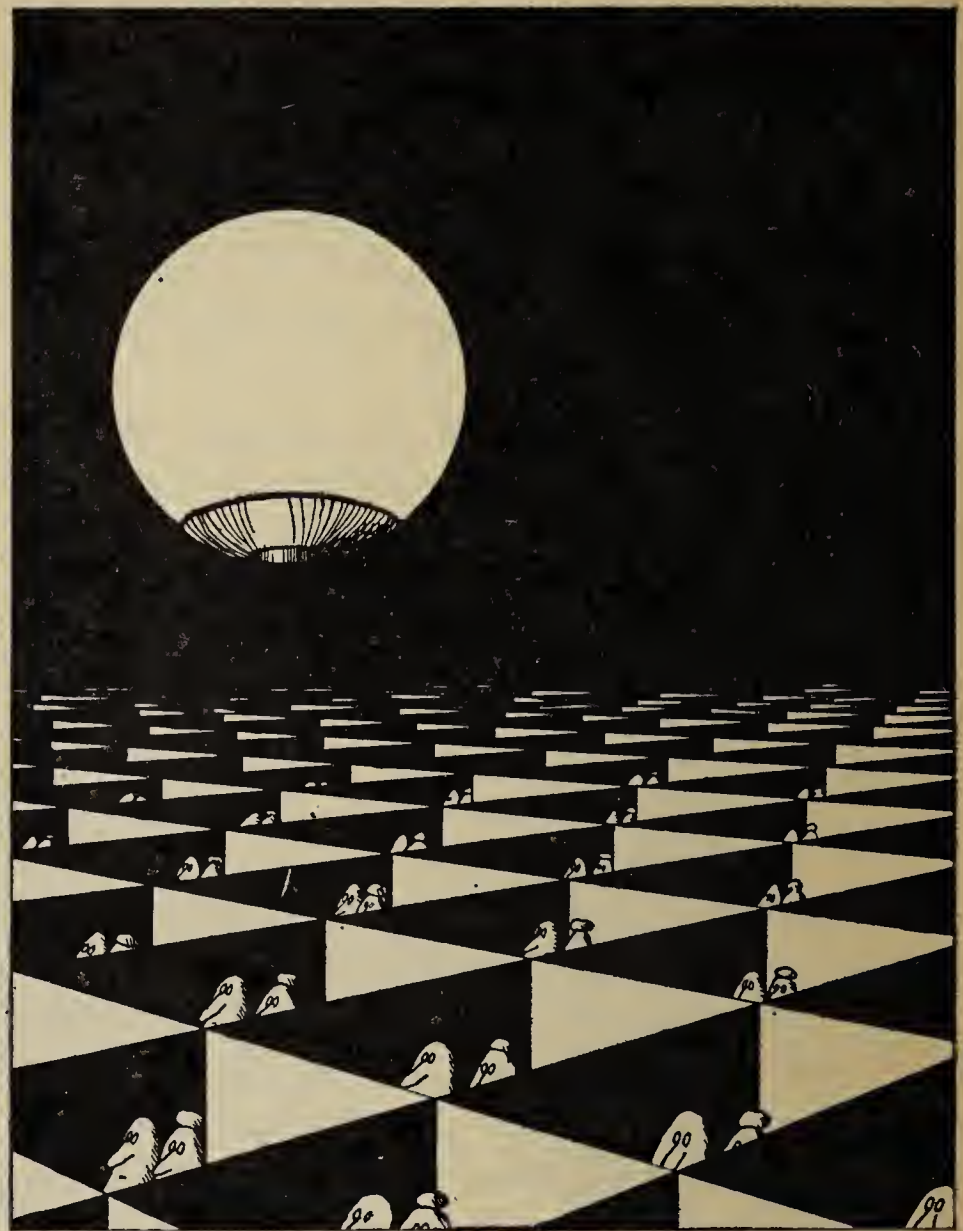
The illustration on this page is from 'Us and Them', a publication by the peace education project described by Robert Aspeslagh on pages 63-66. The illustration opposite is similarly from recently published educational material: 'World in Conflict', Thomas Nelson 1977.

Introduction

If programmes in international education are to be effectively designed we need to be able to draw on a synthesis of research concerning students' basic knowledge and attitudes. Such a synthesis will pinpoint students' common misunderstandings regarding other nations and peoples, and will emphasise the specific factors which operate to mould their perspectives, attitudes and knowledge. Our purpose in this article is to provide an overview of the available research findings relevant to international education.

Sense of national identity

The sense of national identity appears early, is subject to little change, and is therefore one of the most important of the child's perspectives. The most informative studies of the emergence of this sense of identity have been conducted with young children. Connell, reporting on his interview study with Australian children, points out that ideas which young children hold about potential



external enemies which pose a threat to their country (and these often include all foreign countries) are related to primitive and diffuse fears that the safe places of their own lives will be disturbed(1). This causes an intensification of support for their own national system and the status quo.

Connell concluded that as a result of these basic fears and feelings of threat during early childhood nationalism tends to become very strong and resistant to change in Australia. Cooper, in a study of English and Japanese students, identified a 'patriotic filter' which was in existence by the age of 9 or 10, and which screened out negative images of the home country, thus inducing a 'we' — 'they' dichotomy(2). It seems reasonable to assume that both of these processes operate in other countries also.

This early positive attachment to one's national community is established largely with the aid of national symbols. Since the child's initial identification with his or her country is associated with little real information about it, symbols like the flag and, in the United States, the Statue of Liberty provide concrete links. The connection between prominent symbols and abstract terms like liberty and freedom is illustrated by this interview with a seven-year-old boy:

- I: What does the Statue of Liberty do?
 R: Well, it keeps liberty.
 I: How does it do that?
 R: Well, it doesn't do it, but there are some other guys that do it.
 I: Some other guys do it for the Statue of Liberty?
 R: The Statue is not alive.
 I: Well, what does it do?
 R: It has this torch in its hand, and sometimes they light up the torch. If the Statue were gone, there wouldn't be any liberty (3).

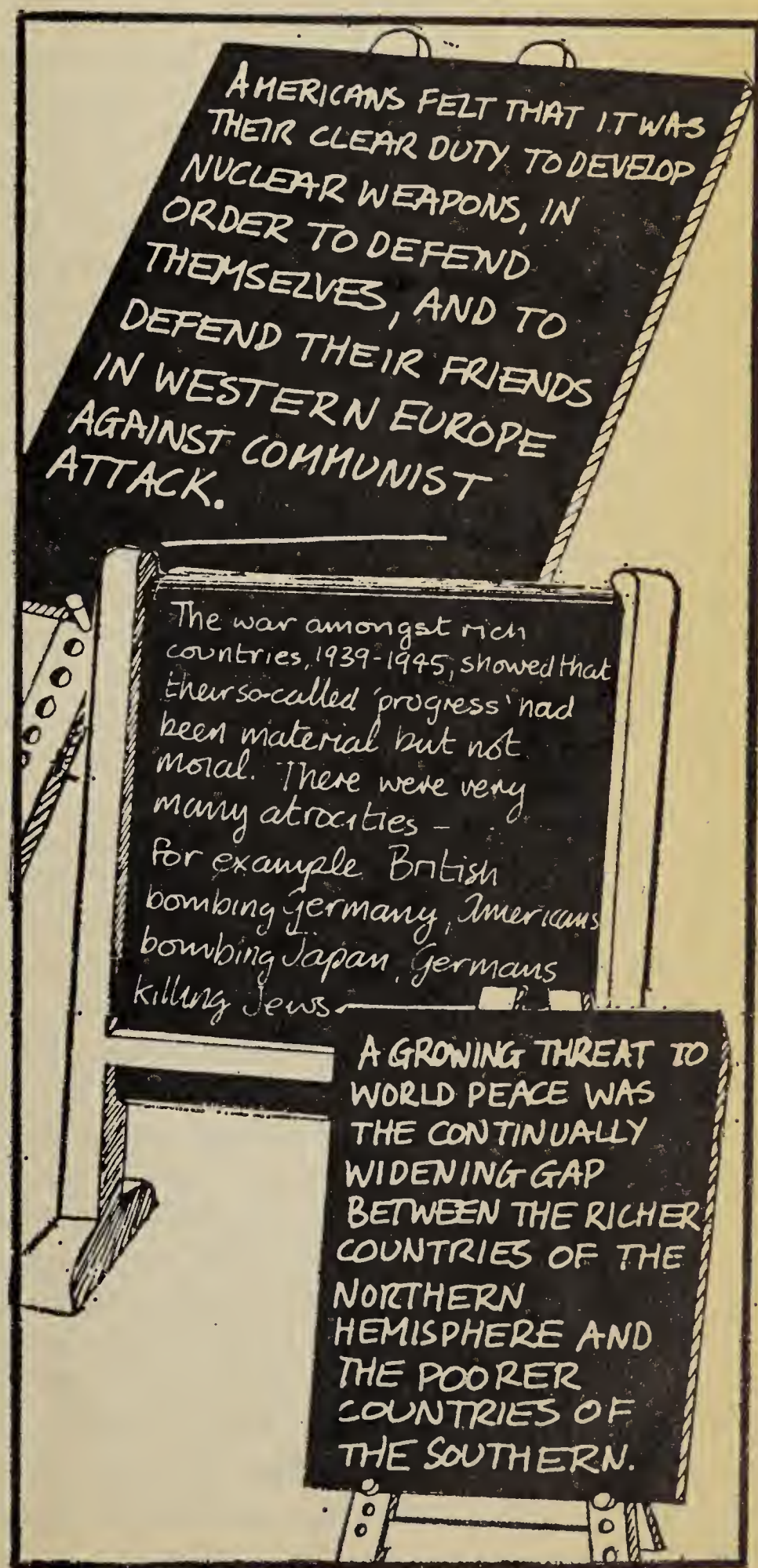
According to Hess and Torney, American children focus throughout elementary school on symbols like the flag and the Statue of Liberty. There are, however, some differences between children in the 2nd-4th grades, whose pride in their American national identity is linked to material elements (e.g., 'Americans are generous' or 'America has beautiful parks'), and those in later grades, who stress ideological factors such as freedom and the right to vote. A further difference noted by the same authors is that young children tend to focus on personalised representatives of government rather than upon institutions as being important.

In the same study it was observed that a strongly positive affective attachment to the nation is developed by the second grade, when an overwhelming proportion of students agree, for example, that 'America is the best country in the world'. Although their knowledge about America may be full of misconceptions about geography and the system of government, and naive with regard to political realities, this strong sense of national identity is present quite early and does not change during elementary school. It is only late in the elementary school that

America is seen as part of an organised system of countries. These findings suggest that there is little need for the school to devote extensive resources to socialising a positive national identity for the older students since that is already a relatively stable aspect of their orientation.

Variations between countries

The study conducted by IEA (The International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement) (4), of thirty thou-



sand pre-adolescent and adolescent students in nine democratic nations, demonstrates some variations between countries in the strength of this sense of national identity, specifically in the emphasis placed on national patriotic rituals or symbols and in the strength of positive evaluations of the government. For example, students in Israel are very much like those in the United States in having a strong national identification, and considerable time in school is devoted to patriotic practices; students in the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland and the Netherlands, on the other hand, are very different and present what might be called an anti-nationalistic position.

Studies conducted by Piaget in Switzerland(5), by Jahoda in Scotland(6), by Jaspars in the Netherlands(7), and by Lambert and Klineberg(8) with small samples in eleven parts of the world (including the US and Japan, as well as African and European countries), have demonstrated common developmental trends in the cognitive aspects of national identification, beginning with a very concrete and undifferentiated world view (both geographically and politically) and progressing to a more sophisticated one. However, some differences in the strength of positive orientations are observed when two or more countries are compared. An unwavering support for one's nation and attachment to national tradition is clearly more important in some countries than in others.

Some possible parallels may be found between the development of personal self-esteem and national esteem. Some research has indicated that individuals with a moderate level of self-esteem are capable of a high level of inter-personal functioning. These individuals are not so convinced of the validity of their own point of view that the views of others are considered unimportant, nor are they lacking in a feeling of the basic worth of all people. The same principle may hold with respect to the level of national esteem. An individual who has an exaggerated level of positive feeling for his or her country may downgrade other nations and cultures, while an individual with a moderate level of such feelings will be more open to international contacts.

Cultural identity

It appears that young people also have the ability (which may be under-estimated) to relate to and identify with a variety of membership groups. In connection with intercultural education in the United States, through the study of domestic ethnic groups, attempts have been made to inquire whether intensifying a student's Italian-American, Irish-American or Mexican-American heritage and identity will weaken psychological ties to the nation as a whole. One can ask children themselves 'whether it would be better if everyone forgot about being a — American (naming the child's own ethnic group) and just concentrated on being American.' The younger children frequently support cultural identity by reference to celebrations and concrete aspects of their ethnic heritage:

A 10-year-old Polish-American boy responded: It would be a bad thing because if you forget about your nationality you won't be able to do those special things in your nationality. Like if you are Spanish, you celebrate birthdays with Pinatas, and you wouldn't have Pinatas if you were just American.

A 9-year-old Lithuanian-American girl answered: I think that every person should have his own nationality; he could celebrate the things their way. If it was just American then it would be a boring place to live in.

Many older children, on the other hand, have a remarkably sophisticated view of the values of pluralistic ethnic identification in American society:

A 12-year-old Italian-American girl answered: A law to forget your nationality would be bad. I like being Italian; it's people's identity. This is what America is about.

A sixteen-year-old Croatian-American boy said: It would be bad to have a law like that because America couldn't be as constructive in views and things that she does. Different groups make America unique and strong.

Images and stereotypes

One's own national identity may also set a kind of perspective for viewing other countries. Remy, Nathan, Becker and Torney con-

cluded that: 'Developing a sense of self is predicated upon an awareness of others and their expectations . . . Identification with one's own country ("we") may be predicated upon an awareness of other countries ("they") (9).' This differentiation of 'we' and 'they' may be an adversary one involving considerable chauvinism. On the other hand it also has the potential to foster an ability to see the interdependence of ourselves and others, and to appreciate the views of people in other countries.

Most of the investigators who have studied children's attitudes have themselves viewed the world as cluster of nation-states. Consequently they have asked children for their opinions of these national units. When Scottish six-to-nine-year-olds were asked for their preferences, Jahoda found that they judged other countries favourably in proportion to perceived similarity to Scotland(10). Preference for foreign countries that were similar to one's own was also noted by Jaspars among students in the Netherlands(11). Lambert and Klineberg(12), in a study done under UNESCO sponsorship, interviewed children aged 6, 10 and 14 in eleven areas of the world in 1959. They found that some stereotyping or labelling of the characteristics of people in their own country was characteristic of younger children, while older children were more likely to apply labels to people in foreign countries.

Educators tend to view stereotypes as wholly undesirable characteristics of children's views of others, which stand in the way of true international education. However, it might be more realistic instead to view the stereotype as a kind of concept by which children organise masses of information. So long as our educational efforts are based on presenting students with quantities of information about the unique characteristics of the peoples and customs of each of a collection of nation-states, rather than encouraging them to look at dynamic interrelationships in the world community, stereotypes may be the best device available to organise this information.

In other words, stereotypes may be used by children as a way of coping with the mass of information they are given about other

nations and peoples. A teacher who stresses the relationships between peoples rather than exotic facts about them may make stereotypes unnecessary.

But children on the whole, particularly those between approximately eight and twelve years of age, seem relatively open to new approaches to and information about foreign people. For example, Lambert and Klineberg found that American children before the age of fourteen were interested both in individuals seen as dissimilar to themselves and in those seen as similar. By the age of fourteen they were less open. Jahoda also discovered among Scottish children a shift in attitudes about other countries beginning at about ten or twelve years of age. Hicks and Beyers(13), who collected data from 3,000 American seventh-and-twelfth-graders, using a map-related technique, also found that stereotypic concepts associated with Africa (natives, tribes, cannibals) and of Russia (enemy, dictatorship) increased from the seventh to the twelfth grade.

The importance of middle childhood

It is also important to consider the interplay of cognitive factors during this age period. There is evidence that beginning at about the age of seven the child enters into a period of rapid cognitive development, especially in the area of perspective and role taking. Middle

A NEW EDITOR

The New Era welcomes with this issue a new associate editor. She is Betty Reardon, who is executive secretary of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction, and chairperson of the Consortium on Peace Research, Education and Development. She was until recently director of the schools program of the Institute for World Order, New York. Betty Reardon has been a contributor to **The New Era** from time to time over the years — readers may remember in particular her most recent article, 'Peace is the Way', published in our issue of November/December 1976.

childhood (before the onset of puberty) might even be called a critical period in attitudinal development, since after this there is a decline in the malleability of attitudes.

The term 'critical period' was originally used by psychologists and ethnologists to describe an age-bounded period during which the social behaviour and learning of young animals demonstrates a high degree of plasticity. Once the end of this period is reached there is a turning point, and behaviour organised in a certain pattern becomes extraordinarily difficult to reorganize(14). It may be appropriate to consider middle childhood as a critical period for the development of international attitudes and of a global perspective, given the evidence of attitudinal changes during this period, the achievement of important cognitive abilities, and the existence of attitudinal flexibility followed later by a tendency towards rigidity.

Even if one does not fully accept the concept of critical periods, however, middle childhood should be recognised as a time of important developmental changes in many attitudes, a period during which certain barriers to a global perspective have not yet been erected, and therefore one which is especially appropriate for beginning international education programs.

That is not to say that there are no negative attitudes among children in middle childhood. Studies of Scottish children, and of Dutch children, as well as the study of children in eleven other countries by Lambert and Klineberg(15), and an interview study by Torney(16), have noted the similar pattern of national groups which children seem to dislike. Younger children tend to reject or see as dissimilar to themselves people from countries which are perceived as having strange and exotic customs, or as being culturally backward (often Asian or African countries), or as having recently been involved in a war (Vietnam, Germany), or as speaking a strange language.

For example, when asked how other countries differed from their own country, more than seventy percent of a group of American children of ages six through twelve years spontaneously mentioned the difference in language spoken. For example, these res-

ponses were given by an eight-year-old boy:

I: How are people in other countries different from you?

R: Most talk Mexican.

I: Anything else?

R: Most talk different from us.

I: Do you think it would be better if everyone in the world were American?

R: Yes, because I want them to talk normal, the way we do.

This is perhaps an extreme example of linguistic ethnocentrism, but it reveals the tendency among certain age groups to place great importance upon a common language as a criterion for acceptance. Language differences are also perceived by some children as an obstacle to communication between ethnic groups in the United States. When asked how these groups differ, one student responded, 'I'd rather be around people who are the same as me. By the time I'd learn Spanish, they'd have grown up and died.'

Psychological research has linked the development of language ability in children to the development of cognitive processes. Speaking and hearing language appears to have a discernible influence on social development also. A variety of studies (in addition to those of Jahoda and of Lambert and Klineberg) find that among older children political and ideological factors are much more critical in determining dislike for certain foreign nations. For example, Hess and Torney(17), Glenn (18), Targ(19), and Hicks and Beyer(20) (in testing conducted with American children from 1962-1969) commented on the negative view of Russia and of other countries perceived as Communist. They were seen as untrustworthy, atheistic, lacking in freedom, and characterised by dictatorships.

In spite of these negative images of national governments, however, several of these studies have also indicated that many children perceive that tolerance and friendliness should be extended to the people who live in another country even if the political leadership of that country is perceived in a negative way. If children are able to distinguish between the people and the political leadership of other countries, they may also be able to make complex distinctions between aspects

of a nation's policy. For example, they may be able to understand how it is possible for the United States to collaborate with Russia on a space flight or to engage in trade with them without approving of aspects of their political system.

A dichotomy which pits national against international often fosters an oversimplified view. This is undesirable if one is attempting to make the point that national feeling and international feeling are not mutually exclusive or that the existence of one does not presume the lowering of the other. It is useful, however, in considering patterns of knowledge and interest regarding national and international topics which exist in different countries.

Discussion of world issues

In Torney, Oppenheim and Farnen's survey, students were asked how frequently they discussed various topics with parents, friends and teachers. Students in the United States ranked fairly high on total amount of discussion engaged in, and on other aspects of active civic interest or participation. However, there was a difference between countries in the topics that actually interested students. Fourteen-year-old students in the Federal Republic of Germany, Finland, Italy, the Netherlands and New Zealand on the average discussed with parents and friends the subject 'what is happening in other countries' more frequently than 'what is going on in our country in government and politics'. In Ireland and Israel, national politics were of slightly greater interest to students than events in other countries.

The United States was the only country (of these eight) where there was substantially less interest among fourteen-year-olds in international political discussion than in the discussion of national political affairs with friends and parents. Similar patterns characterised the performance of pre-university students. The IEA data also show that the discussion of international topics in which American students tend to engage is especially likely to occur in school and with teachers. Another study of American secondary school students conducted in the late 1960's concluded that there is a peak of international interest in the

later high-school years which declines in the immediate post-high school period(21).

The cognitive portion of the IEA questionnaire dealt with knowledge of domestic and international matters. The average American fourteen-year-old is more knowledgeable about domestic political institutions and processes than the average fourteen-year-old in any other country except Israel. In contrast, the American fourteen-year-old is less knowledgeable about international institutions and processes than the fourteen-year-olds in any other nation except Ireland. An opposite pattern (that is, higher scores on knowledge of international processes and institutions than on acquaintance with domestic institutions and processes) characterises students in the Netherlands and the Federal Republic of Germany at this age(22).

Knowledge and attitudes

The relatively greater knowledge of national institutions and processes (in comparison to international ones) among students in the United States (and to some extent in Israel) is congruent with a pattern noted previously in the analysis of patterns of attitudes. Students in these two countries showed the highest scores on the IEA scales measuring attitudinal support for their respective national governments. Israel and the United States were also the countries which reported the highest level of participation in patriotic ritual in their classrooms. In summary, it appears that not only do Israeli and American fourteen-year-olds show a high level of support for their own national government but they also tend to know more about national than about international issues, and are more

WORLD STUDIES RESOURCE GUIDE

The Council for Education in World Citizenship has published an extremely comprehensive list of organisations and publications relating to world studies in the United Kingdom. It is edited by Paul Long. A list of the headings in its Index gives an idea of the width of its concerns: Africa, Asia, Commonwealth, Development, Economics, Educational Exchange, Environment, Europe, Human Rights, Latin America, Middle East, Peace and Conflict, Race and Prejudice, Religion, UN and Agencies, United States. It is available, price 40p post free, from CEWC, 43 Russell Square, London WC1.

interested in discussing national than international matters.

In attempting to understand these knowledge and interest patterns, the National Case Study Questionnaire collected by IEA and published by Passow, Noah and Eckstein (23) is helpful. They formed an index of foreign contact for each nation in the IEA survey. For example, of the countries which conducted tests in Civic Education, the Netherlands ranked the highest on percentage of the Gross National Product which enters world trade (40%), and the United States ranked the lowest (6%).

Similar indices of the percentage of films and textbooks imported from other countries and of the volume of international mail and telephone services again placed the Netherlands as the highest and the United States as the lowest in foreign contact. Data from a 1973 UNESCO survey (unconnected with the IEA research) indicated that only 1-2% of the average week on commercial and public television in the United States is devoted to programmes from other countries — lower than in any of the other one hundred countries surveyed. An important obstacle to a global perspective for Americans may therefore be the lack of international contact in the form of books, movies and mass communication. This lack of readily available international input may make it especially important for teachers in the United States to enrich the teaching of all subjects with material obtained from other cultures, and with other national perspectives.

If one examines the differences between nations included in the IEA study so far as the high and low points of student performance are concerned, there appears to be considerable congruence between knowledge, attitudes, and active participation in discussion. The patterns are somewhat more complex when differences between students are viewed within any single country. In fact, the student who is well informed about international matters may not also be the student who actively participates in discussion of them. In general it would certainly appear that one cannot plan on increasing positive attitudes or participation skills simply by pumping students full of facts about other countries.

Views of the world system

In order to judge students' perspectives on the future of the national and international system, a study of American high school seniors was made by Remy and Nathan (24). When asked to make hypothetical predictions about the solution of problems such as the distribution of wealth, inter-group relations, and the management of violence in the year 1990, students demonstrated much more pessimism about the future of international society and the solving of international problems than about the prospects for solving problems on the national level. Changes which these students predicted would occur in international society tended to be changes they viewed negatively (e.g. 'The bigger industrial countries of the world will economically dominate the smaller, poorer countries.');

those which they viewed as likely to occur in national society were more likely to be those they perceived as positive (e.g. 'Blacks and whites will be on much more friendly terms in the United States.').

Remy and Nathan suggest that this greater pessimism with respect to international matters may be due in part to a lack of any centralised steering mechanism which would assume the role in international society that the national government takes in the domestic system. It has been frequently demonstrated that students learn less easily about political processes than about concrete institutions and persons. In acquiring knowledge of the international system, therefore, students may need as much concrete materials as can be provided by the school.

An example of what can be done in this respect is provided by the project entitled **Columbus in the World — The World in Columbus** (25). This project investigated the linkages between the cities of the world rather than between nation-states. The discovery of the way in which one's own city is linked to others by trade, travel and cultural activities engaged in by ordinary citizens, has a tremendous potential for fostering a global perspective in children as well as among adults (26).

Summary and conclusions

Research shows that positive national iden-

tity is established very early and forms part of the child's perspective for viewing international society. The period before the age of fourteen is especially important because the child's openness to diversity in this period is more likely to foster positive international attitudes. Exaggerated support for his or her own national government may in some cases curtail the child's positive orientations toward other nations. In the United States negative stereotyping still exists among children, particularly with respect to Asian and African countries, and countries where wars have recently taken place. In the United States students tend to possess less knowledge about international than about national matters and to be less motivated to participate in discussion of international affairs outside the classroom than are the students of other countries.

Action to improve education must take place on all levels of instruction and in a variety of modes. An international or intercultural dimension should be an explicit and implicit part of classroom functioning. There appears to be no reason why a global perspective cannot be fostered through many sub-

jects of study without detracting from the mastery of prescribed subject-matter. But teachers need special preparation for these new roles which will help them to utilise not only available materials but also possibilities for meaningful interaction among students and between student and teacher. The practice of patriotic rituals and the imparting of factual material will need to be supplemented by more dynamic discussion. Materials of instruction dealing with other countries should be improved and brought up to date.

The Unesco Recommendation (27) has given the appropriate breadth of focus. In listing areas of action it has specifically recognised the importance of materials and methods 'attuned to the needs and aspirations of the participating young people and adults.' A new course here or a new extra-curricular project there will not even approximate the degree of understanding of other peoples of the world, and of their problems and aspirations, which will be needed by present-day students to become well-balanced and socially effective adults.

JUDITH TORNEY, THOMAS BUERGENTHAL

Dr Judith Torney is associate professor of psychology, University of Illinois at Chicago Circle. She is the associate editor of **International Studies Quarterly**, and is on the editorial board of the **International Journal of Political Education**. She is the co-author of **Civic Education in Ten Countries: An Empirical Study** (1975), **Global Dimensions of US Education: The Elementary School** (1972) and **The Development of Political Attitudes in Children** (1967).

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The article reprinted here is a shortened version of a paper which appears in full in the authors' **International Human Rights and International Education**, published by the US National Commission for Unesco and available for \$3.00 from the Superintendent of Documents, US Government Printing Office, Washington DC, stock number 044-000-01651-6. The book's other contents include papers on human rights, on the development of international education in the United States, and on resources available in the US for teaching about justice and human rights in schools.

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27. Copies of the 1974 Unesco Recommendation can be obtained from national commissions. An extract from it appeared in **The New Era/World Studies Bulletin**, March 1977.

WORLD EDUCATION PROJECT — progress report

The World Education Project based at the School of Education, University of Connecticut, has a variety of interests — including comparative education, education for development, multicultural studies, peace education, non-formal education, and teaching for world understanding.

The Project has close links with the Association for World Education, the Society for Educational Reconstruction, and the Connecticut chapter of the World Education Fellowship. It has recently published papers on education in Israel, Thailand and Switzerland.

A progress report about the Project's work in 1976-77, and a list of publications, is available free of charge from Frank A. Stone, U-32 School of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut 06268, USA.

TEACHING IN A WORLD OF CHANGE

Four pictorial booklets have recently been published by Nelson's — **World in Conflict**, **Caring for the Planet**, **Progress and Poverty**, **Fighting for Freedom**. Each booklet has 48 pages, is quarto size (the same size, incidentally, as **The New Era**), and contains many illustrations — cartoons, charts, posters, diagrams, photographs etc. The booklets are intended for use by 14-16-year-old students, and cost 75p each. Further details from Thomas Nelson and Son, Windmill Road, Sunbury-on-Thames, Middlesex TW16 7HP.

JORDANHILL PROJECT

Nine schools in the Strathclyde Region, Scotland, are taking part in a project on education for international understanding, 1977-1980.

The project is compiling and testing materials on themes such as 'The Emergent Nation', 'Human Rights', 'The Development Process', 'Interdependence', 'Conflict and Cooperation', and 'Choices for the Future.'

The project is funded by the Development Education Fund of the Ministry of Overseas Development, and is directed by Mr O. J. Dunlop, from whom further information and progress reports may be obtained: he can be contacted at the Department of Economics and Modern Studies, Jordanhill College of Education, Glasgow G13 1PP.

WORLD HISTORY PROGRAM

The Scholastic World History Program has four main titles: **The Rise of the West**, **Empires Beyond Europe**, **The Age of Europe**, **The Modern World**. The books for 14-16-year-old students cost \$2.95 each (about £1.50). They are very clearly and attractively written and are readily usable in all English-speaking countries. There is also a Teaching Guide to accompany each title, and a set of worksheets with quizzes, exercises, games, charts, etc. Details from Scholastic Book Services, 50 West 44th Street, New York, NY 10036, USA.

Multiracial Britain and the Third World: tensions and approaches in the classroom

Mary Worrall, Oxfam Communications Division, UK

In Britain as in many other Western countries there are currently certain tensions between, as the phrases are, 'multiracial education' on the one hand and 'development education' on the other.

In this article Mary Worrall pinpoints the most serious of these tensions. She argues that multiracial education and development education have however much to learn from each other, and much to gain from working more closely together.

The illustration on this page is by Brian Bates. It was designed in connection with a meeting held at the University of Aston in Birmingham, summer 1977.

Introduction

Those of us who are working towards a more just and harmonious multiracial society, and those concerned with education for world development, are ultimately trying to move in the same direction. At the level of practical classroom innovation, however, it sometimes seems as though these two pressure groups are riding horses going in opposite directions: the first emphasising the achievements of other cultures and ethnic groups, the second stressing the poverty and disadvantage of the third world poor. Yet like the six blind men in the fable we are all perhaps encountering the same elephant — we are feeling different aspects of the one complex truth.

A multiracial, multi-cultural society is one that is plural and diverse; and educating children to enjoy and accept its potential implies educating them to respect customs and values of cultural groups that are different from their own. Cultural values survive migration, and minorities the world over have to meet the challenge of accommodating to a new environment while retaining what matters most to them of their own culture. By culture is meant here not only Beethoven and the Taj Mahal but 'the means by which people identify themselves. The clothes they wear; the language they speak; the way they walk; the songs they sing; their myths' (1).

Respect for others and a reasonable pride and grounding in one's own family culture



are the twin complementary attributes of people who can feel happy within diversity. It applies to working class children and to the Welsh and Irish within Britain as well as to the more obvious and recent immigrants.

President Nyerere has defined development as: 'the building of a society in which all members have equal rights and equal opportunities: in which all can live at peace with their neighbours without suffering or imposing injustice, being exploited or exploiting; in which all have gradually increasing basic levels of material welfare before any individual lives in luxury' (2).

Development education involves educating children for change in a desirable direction, and to understand and empathise with people, mainly in the third world, who are handicapped from achieving their full potential by poverty, lack of resources, and an economic and political organisation that

limits their growth.

The objectives of multiracial education and development education would therefore seem to be complementary. Yet in practice choice of curriculum content has been very different.

Contrasts

Aware of the derogatory references in school materials and in the media towards Africans and Asians, teachers working for a just and harmonious multiracial British society have stressed the more positive features of those cultures. The education department of the Community Relations Council (unhappily declined in strength since the merger into the Commission for Racial Equality in 1977) tended to concentrate on 'high culture' — on myth and history, architecture, music, literature and religion. In a handful of London schools, Black Studies has focused on the historical roots of the black British, looking beyond the Caribbean of their parents to the societies of West Africa and to the analogous histories of North American blacks. Projects on India have very often supported an idealised view of traditional family life, embedded in an aura of myth and legend and fine fabrics.

The development educational lobby has offered a sharply contrasting selection of material on third world countries. Led by the aid agencies, whose proper concern is with the poorest of the world's poor, many teachers have chosen to focus on malnutrition, disease, drought, flood, famine and homelessness. Within this grim picture of endless deprivation the concept of development, as introduced in many secondary school curricula, has become equated with concrete inputs: housing, wells, sanitation, factories, hospitals, road networks, seed and fertilisers. And more often than not, in textbooks and aid agency materials, Asians and Africans are seen almost solely as victims and recipients, rarely as creative and capable people, coping in their own way with the problems of their environment and evolving their own varied contribution to mankind's styles of living.

Of the two sets of interpretations, the second has had by far the greater influence, and it provides the dominant imagery affecting the expectations which white children have of black and Asian people. Both camps, by emphasising such partial features of infinitely varied and complex continents, have produced curricula which are biased and partisan. Only too often work in schools has



1. In Britain when Measles gets you, you get time off school. 2. A few days later you're OK. 3. But if you lived in Bangladesh things would be different. 4. If Measles gets you when you're thin and hungry — you won't get better. 5. Operation Jab is the answer.

This a poster for young children published in 1976 by **Save the Children**, the British aid agency. It is reprinted here to illustrate some of the concerns discussed in the article by Mary Worrall. A full list of **Save the Children's** publications for schools is available from 157 Clapham Road, London SW9 0PT.

confirmed children in the prejudices and half truths they pick up from the media and from old films (Tarzan has a lot to answer for), comics and popular fiction(3).

Basic attitudes

Before introducing material on any third world country to children, it is wise to discover what notions are already lodged in their minds about cultures outside Europe, and what their concepts are about 'civilisation', 'progress', 'development', 'primitive', etc.

There is plenty of evidence from research and from everyday observation to show that children pick up attitudes towards other races and ethnic groups from the age of five or six or even earlier(4). By six or seven, children in North America, Australia and Europe are likely to have developed a strong set of preferences for their own group, and distrust and dislike of other groups, especially people from distant and alien cultures of the third world. So a pattern of preferences and dislikes develops before schools actively teach about third world countries.

For example, when children of 9 to 10 years in different parts of England were recently given a free choice to fantasise on where they would like to go, given a magic carpet or gas-filled balloon, Europe, America and the 'white' Commonwealth were overwhelmingly preferred. And when invited to write about somewhere they did not want to get landed in by mistake, they produced a narrow range of stereotyped descriptions of jungles, 'primitive' natives brandishing spears, and dirty thin people. Africans, Indians and even Brazilian Indians were jumbled up in one confused notion of primitive, poor, uncivilised people(5).

For many children, the concept of civilisation is surrounded by a rather bizarre set of associations. In a village school in the rural West of England a group of nine-year-olds were talking about India and the images they had gained from television programmes such as **The Disappearing World**, an anthropological series.

Boy 1: They're not very civilised. They have different food and customs.

Teacher: What do you mean by civilised?

Boy 1: They haven't got any guns or weapons.

Boy 2: And tractors and ploughs and machinery(6).

This equation of civilisation with machinery and technology emerges in a lot of children's writing. After seeing a film about West Africa one ten year old wrote: 'At first I didn't know whether they were civilised or not. Then I saw a woman with a sewing machine and so I knew they were civilised' (6). Some evidence collected by a questionnaire to older students showed that even 17-year-old students have acquired very little knowledge about third world countries. In response to the question 'What things do you tend to think of when the word Africa is mentioned?' virtually all answers could be summed in in the one word: disasters(7).

It seems clear that the image of the primitive, disaster-prone native is related to anti-black feeling in Britain. A 15-year-old writing about a 'modern problem' repeats the familiar beliefs about immigrants taking over the country and living on social security, and finishes his piece thus:

And another thing when the war was on where was they then, they was all hiding in their mud huts. So I think the government should listen to Enoch Powell and get the immigrants out(8).

For British born children of Asian and West Indian parents the mud hut, starvation image can be deeply disturbing. A couple of years ago a class of secondary school pupils in Ealing strongly objected to a course based on Oxfam educational materials published in the 1960's, materials which bore no relation to the farms of their relations in the Punjab, but which were assumed by white classmates to reflect their background. Young children have few mental resources and no store of images to set alongside the pictures of emaciated slum dwellers; older students are often angry at the simplistic, limited stereotypes, and want more attention given to land ownership, unfair trading patterns, and exploitation of labour.

Devaluation of culture

Neglect or pervasive devaluation of the history and culture of Afro-Caribbean and Asian people can damage the sense of identity and

self-esteem of children from the British minority groups. Indians and Pakistanis seem in the main confident enough to stand up for themselves, at least as they grow older and learn something of their own religious beliefs and culture in the Mosque or Gurdwara Saturday schools. Even so 'Mucky Paki' is not an easy term of abuse to withstand. Sikh children in Ealing were recently so taunted in predominantly white schools on the outskirts of the borough that they asked to move back into the securer environment of Southall; and in outer ring Birmingham schools, Asian children who had been doing well in the inner city became so distressed by the reception they were getting from white students that their standard of work declined.

All the evidence shows that it is black children of Afro-Caribbean descent who suffer most from cultural devaluation, partly because their own parents, educated in colonial West Indian schools before Afro-Caribbean history and literature were widely introduced, and before the revolution in black consciousness in the United States, were ambivalent about their own African roots. The depth and time-scale of cultural repression explains the strength and power of the Rastafarian movement among young blacks. Meanwhile in schools the devaluation of black experience continues, though more by default than intention, and it seems to be a factor behind the under-achievement of black British children.

Yet over-zealous attempts to set the record straight, and to teach more about the achievements than the problems or deficiencies of third world countries, can be just as counter-productive of good relations between groups. The reaction of white middle school children in a London borough with a high proportion of Punjab Sikhs to a project weighted in favour of successful modern developments in India was 'So, if it's so marvellous, why don't they go back?'

Propaganda and honesty

Propaganda, whether on behalf of the poor in the third world or of minority groups in Britain, can be self-defeating. The only intellectually honest way to communicate the reality of other cultures to children is to abandon any blinkered, partisan selection of

materials and face up to the contrasts and contradictions — both the achievements and strengths and also the problems and tragedies. It is only thus that we may begin to eliminate the dichotomy between 'them' and 'us', and see what education for development in a multiracial world really implies. The clue to a synthesis lies quite simply in listening to what people are saying about themselves rather than selecting from the experiences of whole nations only what fits into a predetermined set of objectives and themes.

Writers and thinkers in the field of development studies and multicultural studies are beginning to say the same thing, and to accept a position which any trained historian, anthropologist or literature specialist takes as an essential element in his or her trade: approach sources with an open, questioning mind and try to get inside the skin of people with unfamiliar experiences, whether the context is in the past, in fiction, or in an alien culture.

An acceptance of the significance of culture is returning to development studies: 'if people are to be regarded as the subjects rather than the objects of development processes, any proposals for their future must be adequately related to what they perceive of their past' (9). 'The terms and characteristics and boundaries of people's identity must be determined by those people themselves. People are not free if there is a more powerful group of people who insist on defining them and keeping them within that definition' (10). Even geographers are emerging from their self-generated patterns and systems to say: 'The key problem of trying to give a world perspective in Geography depends on getting children to stand outside their cultural norms and assumptions, however momentarily. The growing interest in appropriate technology is perhaps more than anything else the result of a real effort to see other peoples' needs as they see them' (11).

Attitudes amongst teachers

Since no one should expect pupils to do what their teacher cannot attempt, the first task is to reconsider the concepts of development and change that have been current and influential during the time we have been

teachers and students. What is particularly difficult and painful to grasp is the realisation that both the development theories of the '60s and the assimilationist position of committees for racial integration were based on an assumption that European civilisation and the technologically sophisticated western world were models towards which the third world and minority groups in Britain should 'develop', or into which they should 'integrate'.

Cultural imperialism has underlain huge areas of the school curriculum. The task of shifting this weight needs the concerted efforts of everyone working for the right of all people to be in control of their lives, the essence of development and of multiracial ideologies. Running through the whole education process there needs to be the theme that there are many cultures in the world but that all men and women have the same basic needs — work, food, shelter, clothing, health, language, friendship, education, love, religion, family, society, law and order and 'distracciones' (fiestas). Human groups are different but not superior or inferior.

This is the crux of the matter: this is the attitude that needs to inform the choice from the immense range of possibilities open to teachers who want to educate in the direction of inter-cultural understanding and for a more just distribution of the earth's resources.

A clue to procedure can be gained from a Bolivian educator, the late Robert Carvajal. Carvajal perceived the issues that faced him in devising a curriculum for illiterate girls in a knitting and weaving cooperative in the high mountain plains of the Andes. He was both linguist and anthropologist and had spent years tramping round the villages and outlying farms of the Quechua Indians, studying their folklore and ways of perceiving reality. Equally he was aware of the forces that had pushed the Quechua to the margins of an economy dominated by the descendants of Spanish settlers and organised for the benefit of white and mestizo (mixed races) townspeople. The effects of the domination of a culture that saw itself as superior and more 'advanced' than the indigenous Indians had resulted in the Quechua devaluing their own language and traditions much as the

Caribbean Africans had done.

Carvajal, himself a Quechua, was concerned with the value of their traditions but also with development within a wider society and he mapped out a curriculum for the Indian girls of Cochabamba which fused the two.

The basic objective was to enable the girls to see that it is not a shameful thing to be a peasant. 'We try and make them proud of being an Indian, proud of their dress and culture, and I've seen over the years that they are happier now. They are becoming more sure of themselves. Before, they would hang their head down when they talked to a stranger. Now, you can see a girl from the centre and she will hold up her head and talk out' (12).

Roberto Carvajal's method was to enable his students to define their own needs, appreciate their own strengths, and work out solutions to their own problems — not to start with the problems of people on the far side of the world. Rather than introducing children in Western countries to the supposed deficiencies and needs of people of whose culture they as yet know nothing, we too could start with a questioning and analysing process near home:

- What are the effects of the cutback in country bus services?
- Why vandalism?
- Why have motorways been built so close to homes?
- Why do we need special institutions for the old?
- Why do we have so much waste stuff to dispose of?
- Should they build a rubbish crusher in South Oxford?
- What changes have happened in the neighbourhood, village, town, for the better, or for the worse?
- Why are so many Europeans so fat?
- Are all our household objects necessary, beautiful, useful?

A great deal of work needs to be done on the stages at which children may learn to apply a questioning process to problems that are beyond their immediate environment and experienced by people whom they do not know and understand. But certainly appreciation of the quality and validity of other

lifestyles needs to go alongside a growth of critical awareness in one's own immediate situation.

Approaches to curriculum planning

According to the folk psychology of the Sikhs, the first seven or so years of a child's life are given over to imitative play — play at homes, being mother, copying father. From the coming of the second teeth to puberty imagination reigns; children from 7 to 11 or so love drama, stories, fantasy, the colour and sounds of a wedding or a festival. And they enjoy creating pictures, patterns, pots and woven and wooden things. This is the time to learn that common themes run through the myths and legends of mankind; that there are infinitely various ways of expressing human emotions in poetry, music, dance; that the crafts of pottery, weaving, carving, metal work, have reached a high degree of skill and artistry in different cultures at different times.

There is no need to introduce a new subject area in junior schools for third world or minority cultures. The themes and projects already current — food, clothing, homes, craftwork — may be enriched with extra materials so that children receive a constantly reinforcing message that the artefacts and stories of people from cultures that are strange to them are worth their attention and may give pleasure. The bulk of the curriculum will remain rooted in British and European culture and history. There is no cause to squeeze out or devalue what is good and admirable in our own local and national traditions and development.

When children are ready to engage in abstract thinking, they may begin to grapple with the difficult issues of world development, not, however, on a simplistic rich West/poor rest basis but by studying and discussing:

- land ownership patterns — why relatively few have control over so much;
- why large areas of Latin America and the Caribbean are used to grow crops for export while local people are malnourished.
- the rapid technological development of Europe and North America in the past two hundred years and its effect on the more

normal pace of change in the rest of the world;

- colonisation and its effect on indigenous industries — the Indian cotton trade for example;
- the advance of medicine and its effect on population growth;
- the strength of cultural identity and its power to survive transplanting and to adapt to new conditions;
- genuine difficulties of adapting to change in the environment and to new ways of working;
- plural societies — the tensions of living alongside people with different customs and values;
- the advantages of tried and tested ways of behaving;
- choices about priorities in development — large-scale industrial developments on the western model, or small-scale, intermediate- technological change in villages and rural areas.

In Britain it might be wise to introduce these concepts and problems through material on regions that are less hackneyed in schools: Latin America, China, the Middle East, South East Asia and Indonesia.

Children's expectations and prejudgements are less formed about these areas of the world. Whatever the choice of place, however, there is a huge job to be done in re-thinking our underlying assumptions. Without wishing to jump to the extreme of belittling the real contributions that Europeans have made to the world, perhaps the first question to pose is: 'Why should we ever have thought that other people would want to be more like us?'

MARY WORRALL

Mary Worrall has taught in schools in Antigua and Britain, and in the period 1973-1976 she was a member of the Schools Council/National Foundation for Educational Research project Education for a Multiracial Society. She now works in Oxfam Communications Division.

Notes on this article are on page 57.

Teaching Styles and Race Relations: some effects on white teenagers

Gajendra Verma, University of Bradford, and Christopher Bagley, University of Surrey, UK

This article describes research into three different ways of teaching about race relations: through discussion, with the teacher acting as a neutral chairperson; through fairly direct and didactic instruction, with the teacher explicitly trying to undermine prejudice and develop respect for other cultures; and through role-play and improvised drama.

The research found that all three approaches resulted in increases in tolerance amongst white teenagers in British schools. Of the three, the approach involving the teacher as chairperson rather than instructor led to the statistically most significant changes.

This article is, like the other articles in this issue of *The New Era*, of interest and importance in its own right. But also — and also like the other articles — it derives additional focus from the company in which it is here published. And it too provides, in its own turn, additional value and weight to each of the other articles.

The illustration on this page is from 'The Search', edited by Alma Murray and Robert Thomas, and published by The Scholastic Black Literature Series, USA.

Introduction

Whatever may be the roots of racism, it is clearly creating turmoil in many areas of society. However, few educators have developed structured and systematic programmes to change attitudes for increased racial tolerance. This article is concerned with the evaluation of three different teaching methods designed to change attitudes of adolescents in an effort to combat prejudice.

A glance through the literature suggests that a number of techniques have been utilised in an attempt to deal with this issue. These include the development of ethnically balanced materials for classroom use, innovative teaching methods, and the promotion of personal contact between the members of different ethnic groups.

Despite some success in changing racist attitudes, few would claim that attitudinal changes in the area of race can readily be achieved by educational programmes. Besides, the teaching of race relations in the classroom is a controversial subject. Many



teachers in Britain feel therefore that it is likely to lead to tension and hostility, and that it may provoke a classroom situation that they are unable to handle. There are others who feel that as a means of combatting prejudice teaching may be counter-productive(1). For example, the most articulate members of the class may also be the most prejudiced; and feelings of group solidarity may prevail over rational judgements.

The Humanities Curriculum Project

With these difficulties in mind a pilot study on behalf of the Humanities Curriculum Project was carried out(2). This pilot study was based on 226 pupils aged 14-16 in six English

schools, five of them multiracial. The approach to teaching about race relations was to use a 'neutral' chairman, in an open discussion of a specially prepared 'race-pack' produced under the auspices of the Schools Council. The primary purpose of this study was an exploratory one and the intention was to test the effects of one project strategy in this undoubtedly problematical area. The before-and-after test results for the experimental groups, as measured by an earlier version of the present instrument(3) showed small but significant shifts in the direction of tolerant attitudes in the post-test situation, in comparison with attitude change in untaught controls.

Among the methodological deficiencies of that study were the fact that controls were drawn from schools other than those in which the experimental teaching took place, with the result that institutional factors were not controlled. Furthermore, in testing for significance of attitudinal differences in the post-test situation, the 'regression to the mean' effect was not taken into account, which could have given rise to significant but spurious differences. However, the overall effects of this experiment tended to suggest a shift in the direction of interethnic tolerance. Case-study data provided information to support and explain the results of this study.

Following this experiment one of the sponsors, the Schools Council, declined to publish the teaching materials and declared itself *prima facie* against the 'neutral' teaching of race relations. The Council also declined to support revision of the teaching materials, or to support further and more extended research into the teaching strategy.

In view of the changing structure of British society a high proportion of secondary schools, especially in heavily populated urban areas are now multiracial. Bullock rightly remarked that 'many schools in multi-cultural areas turn a blind eye to the fact that the community they serve has radically altered over the last 10 years and is now one in which new cultures are represented'. This clearly suggests that there is a need for a much more through-going programme of education for a multi-racial society.

The race issue is more explicit and tense

in Britain today than it was, say, 25 years ago. Some people hold the view that if the gap between rich and poor, privileged and under-privileged, does not close rapidly we are bound to experience heightening conflicts and violence, and that a crucial dimension in these conflicts is likely to be that of race. In such a climate any incident, however insignificant, between people of different races can produce a spark capable of creating turmoil in all areas of our social life. Given this context, educational experiments face particular difficulties and are typically viewed with some suspicion and much anxiety. It is important to note too that cautionary advice has been offered to teachers by various committees and bodies concerned with education for a multi-racial society.

Further research

Although the Schools Council refused to support the publication of teaching materials, further research was not abandoned. Support was attracted from the Social Science Research Council and the Gulbenkian Foundation for a programme of research(4).

For the purpose of the evaluation exercise further work was accomplished to improve on the batteries of tests of prejudice. The main instrument, the Bagley-Verma Scale, was expanded and refined(5). The final version of the scale containing 55 items (including 'passenger' items) has the following sub-scales: 'General Racism', 'Anti-West Indian', 'Anti-Asian' and 'Anti-White'. The validity and reliability of this scale were established in a factor analytic study of pupils from 12 English multi-racial schools in London and the Midlands, and by the scale's ability to predict inter-ethnic hostility in the classroom.

Participants for the present study were drawn from 39 British secondary schools, 29 of them multiracial containing West Indian and/or Asian pupils in varying proportions (between 1% and 50%). Other ethnic groups (e.g. African and Cypriot) in the participating schools were in smaller numbers. The schools were of differing environments and of different sizes and types, but could not be systematically or randomly drawn, since a major constraint was the willingness of schools to participate in the experiment. The

schools were, however, representative of the main rural and urban areas in Britain.

Teaching Strategies

Three different teaching strategies (which were called A, B and C) were employed: 13 schools followed strategy A; 16 followed strategy B; and 10 followed strategy C. Approximately 1,500 pupils aged 14-16 took part in the experiment (experimental and control combined). Controls were drawn from most of the experimental schools comprising the three strategies. They were matched with the experimental pupils in terms of age, sex, ethnic origin and general ability.

The broad aim of teaching strategy A was 'to develop an understanding in the area of race relations of social situations and human acts and of the controversial value issues which they raise'. The major feature of this strategy was that the teacher adopted the role of a neutral chairman in the classroom. Strategy B was intended to be a more 'positive' approach than Strategy A. Its broad aim as defined by participating teachers was 'to educate for the elimination of racial tensions and ill-feeling within our society — which is and will be multi-racial — by undermining prejudice, by developing respect for varied traditions and by encouraging mutual understanding, reasonableness and justice'. In this strategy the teacher was committed to give his/her view in order to promote racial tolerance. Strategy C was concerned with teaching about race relations through drama. The schools worked mainly through situational improvised drama, pupils taking a variety of dramatic roles in dramatised race relations situations.

Research procedure

Teachers from each strategy came together for a strategy-based conference before embarking on the experiment. A specially prepared pack of value-balanced race relations materials was used in conjunction with the teaching. It was difficult to ascertain, however, the extent to which the teaching pack was utilised in strategy C.

All the schools taught about race relations from January to April 1974. Pre-testing was carried out with pupils in November/Decem-

ber 1973, and post-testing was in April/May 1974.

A battery of ten tests was administered on a pre- and post-test basis. These tests con-

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Gajendra Verma and Christopher Bagley refer in their article to the questionnaire about racial tolerance and hostility which they used in their research. Readers may like to have some further information about the questionnaire, as follows:

The scale as presented contains some 55 items, a substantial number of these being 'passenger' items. The items presented are short (e.g. 'West Indians'). The subject is asked to respond to the question, 'Which of the following do you favour, approve of, or believe in?', and is given the response 'Yes', '?' or 'No'.

Scoring takes account of the directions of response. Thus 'yes' in response to the item 'West Indians' is given a score of 0; '?' a score of 1; and 'no' a score of 2. The scoring responses to the item 'Sending Asians Home' is in the opposite direction.

The **General Racism (GR)** scale contains the following items: West Indians; White Superiority; Enoch Powell; Martin Luther King; Asian Neighbours; Pakistanis; Employing West Indians; Sending Asians Home; Mixed-Race Marriage; The Race Relations Act; Minority Rights; Jews; Cypriots; Asian Nurses; Black Doctors; Irish; Asian Businessmen; Having a Black Boyfriend or Girlfriend; Black Immigration; Jamaican Bus Conductors; Equality of Races. The maximum score on this 21-item scale is 42, a high score indicating a marked prevalence of racist attitudes.

Some of the items from the General Racism scale are also included in the subsequent scales, whose items are as follows: **Anti-Asian (AA scale)** — Highly Civilised Asians; Asian Neighbours; Pakistanis; Sending Asians Home; Asian Nurses; Asian Businessmen; Asian Inferiority. These items, like all the other items in the scale, were distributed randomly throughout the larger scale. The maximum score on the Anti-Asian scale is 14.

The **Anti-West Indian (AW1)** scale comprises the following eight items (maximum score 16): West Indians; Employing West Indians; Black Doctors; Having a Black Boyfriend or Girlfriend; Black Immigration; Jamaican Bus Conductors; Black People's Brotherhood; Black Power.

The **Anti-White (AW)** scale comprises the following five items (maximum score 10): White Inferiority; British are Immoral; Asian Superiority; Black Superiority; Englishmen.

The **Black Power Ideology (BPI)** scale comprises the following two items (maximum score 4): Black Power; Black People's Brotherhood.

— From 'Inter-ethnic attitudes and behaviour in British multi-racial schools', in G. K. Verma and C. Bagley, eds, **Race and education across cultures**, Heinemann 1975, pp.238-39.

tained measures of racial attitudes, personality, self-esteem, attitudes to school and teachers, reading ability, and perception. The main emphasis in the testing programme was on the use of correlational techniques to give insights into the relationships between experimental and contextual variables. However, this paper reports the overall impact of three different teaching methods based on a single established instrument, the Bagley-Verma scale, which is described fully elsewhere (5). The questionnaire was developed to assess changes in inter-ethnic attitudes. For the purposes of this article pre- and post-test scores of white adolescents (experimental and control groups) were utilised to assess change in their attitude towards Blacks (A.W.I.) and Asians (A.A.) and to assess any change in their general prejudice (G.R.)

Results and discussion

Analysis of the data by strategy (A, B or C) was carried out; each experimental group in the three strategies was compared with an untaught control group, drawn from the same school and being comparable in terms of age, sex and ethnic categories. A specially devised formula was used for testing for significance which took into account the 'regression to the mean' effect (i.e. the natural tendency over time of very low scores to increase, and the tendency of very high scores to decrease). This is essentially a conservative test of significance.

Although the Bagley-Verma Opinion Questionnaire contained four sub-scales (General Racism, Anti-Black, Anti-Asian and Anti-White), in the present analysis scores for white experimental pupils on three scales, G.R., A.A. and A.B., were compared with controls. All experimental groups showed **increases** in tolerance, and all controls **decreased** in tolerance. The crucial experimental variable considered was not, however, the absolute level of prejudice, but the actual amount of change in the post-experimental situation.

Strategy A (The Neutral Chairman approach) resulted in significant changes in the direction of tolerance compared with controls. The results clearly showed that the experimental white group (N=258) improved in their

scores on the general racism, anti-Asian and anti-Black scales, while the scores of the control group (N=124) deteriorated somewhat. In this teaching strategy the difference of performance of experimental and control groups, as judged by t-value for difference of shift, was statistically significant in all cases at .01 level.

Strategy B (the didactic chairman approach) also resulted in favourable change on all three scales in comparison with change in untaught control pupils. However, the differences between the experimental group (N=359) and the control group (N=180) were statistically significant only in the case of the anti-Black scale and this at .05 level. It is important to note that changes in the control group were in the direction of intolerance; one of them being statistically significant at the 1 percent level of statistical confidence.

Strategy C (the Drama approach) showed no marked advantage of experimental over control group. Although all the three scores of the experimental group (N=238) showed increases in tolerance, these increases were too small to reach statistical significance. On the other hand changes on two scales in the control group (N=92) were also in the direction of tolerance. It should perhaps be mentioned that teaching through improvised drama did not lead to deterioration of racial attitudes.

The results of this study seem to suggest that the use of standardised materials and programmes can contribute to an improvement in racial tolerance for secondary school pupils. An inspection of the data indicated that white adolescents' racist attitudes seemed to have changed as a result of teaching about race relations. Upon further examination of these results it appears that in all three strategies there was a definite incidence of positive shifts in the experimental groups as compared with an incidence of negative shifts in the control groups. These findings do therefore seem to indicate, contrary to earlier fears, that in the short-term at least teaching about race relations may well be beneficial.

GAJENDRA VERMA, CHRISTOPHER BAGLEY

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The research described in this article was done at the Centre for Applied Research in Education, University of East Anglia.

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CHANGE IN THE SCHOOL

How can a school staff begin discussing how to internationalise their whole curriculum? — There are some fascinating suggestions, both theoretical and practical, in **Global Education: a working manual** by Jon Kinghorn and William Shaw. Details from IDEA, Charles F. Kettering Foundation, 5335 Far Hills Avenue, Dayton, Ohio 45429, USA.

CHILD HEALTH PROGRAMME

The Institutes of Education and Child Health, London University, are marking the International Year of the Child, scheduled for 1979, by collaborating on an international child health programme. Known as the CHILD-to-child programme, it aims to teach and encourage primary school children in the third world to use simple methods of improving the health and development of their younger brothers and sisters. Further details are available from the programme director: Duncan Guthrie, c/o Institute of Child Health, 30 Guilford Street, London WC1N 1EH.

Perspectives on Poverty and Injustice: a course for student teachers

Dave Hicks, Minority Rights Group, London, UK

The editorial of this issue of *The New Era* recalled a passage in Thomas Hardy's *Tess of the D'Urbervilles*, and town dwellers' negative attitudes towards 'Hodge' — yokels, peasants, country bumpkins etc.

Do such negative attitudes derive only from Ignorance? Or do they derive also, or mainly, from the economic relations which typically exist between town and country? Do they arise from, and then act back to provide a kind of justification for, patterns of injustice and exploitation?

And similarly with regard to Westerners' attitudes towards non-Westerners, whether in the third world or in immigrant communities within their own societies. Do negative stereotypes — for example, of the kind discussed in this issue of *The New Era* by Mary Worrall — derive mainly from, and is their main function to reinforce, patterns of economic injustice? If so, can attitudes in world society be considered separately from the distribution of power and wealth? Can people's attitudes to other countries be lastingly changed independently of changes in their political and economic theories?

These are some of the main kinds of question raised in this article by Dave Hicks. The article describes a geography course for student teachers in a British college of education, and includes tentative evidence that the students' attitudes to developing countries, and to justice within and between countries, both changed as a result of the course.

The illustration on this page is a poster by War on Want, the British aid agency.

Introduction

In the autumn of 1976 I was asked if I would be interested in planning and teaching a course on the third world for student teachers. The subject was geography, the students were in their third year of a Certificate course, the college was in the north-west of England. I would have a half day a week spread over fourteen sessions in the spring and summer terms of 1977. I had previously found student teachers elsewhere very interested in third world issues and had planned courses in environmental studies and social studies, but not purely in geography. I agreed to run the course.

I did not know the students at all, nor the



college, but was concerned that we should involve ourselves as deeply as possible in as many key issues as we could. I was also particularly interested in setting up participatory situations and encouraging students to verbalise, or to write down, their reactions to various facets of the course, so that a two-way flow could constantly be maintained between us.

Aims and subject-matter

The course had four main aims. These were: i) to give a variety of perspectives on third world issues; ii) to study the origins and causes of third world dependency, and of the process of underdevelopment; iii) to encourage informed opinion about third world problems and to examine possible strategies for their solutions; and iv) to become aware of the complex inter-relationships between North and South. I was asked to focus the course on a particular continent and chose Latin America due to its relative neglect in third

world studies. The title of the unit eventually became **The Third World: Studies in Dependency and Underdevelopment**. There is a summary of the course's subject-matter in the table on the next page.

The recommended texts for the course were the **Latin America Study Pack** (USPG), Susan George's **How The Other Half Dies** (Pelican) and Gilbert's **Latin American Development** (Pelican). An extensive supplementary reading list, related to each session, was also provided.

Before the course began students were asked to complete a simple attitude test based on an idea by Michael Storm. This was not a scientific test in any sense but offered thirteen commonly held opinions about 'why poor countries are poor', to be ranked in order of perceived importance. It was felt that it could provide some possible indicators of how the group saw the third world. Thus statements which they felt were important and valid in formulating an explanation to the question 'Why are some countries so much poorer than others?' would be ranked highly. Statements which they felt were unconvincing or inaccurate in relationship to this question would be ranked low.

Table 1: Attitude Survey — before the course
Some countries are much poorer than others because of:-

1. Difficult climate
2. Low levels of education
3. Bad government
4. Overpopulation
5. Inadequate financial structures
6. Exploitation by richer countries
7. Poor diets
8. Religion and superstition
9. Poor health
10. Policies of rich countries
11. Too little help
12. People's character
13. Too much help

They were also instructed for the purposes of the exercise 'to the set on one side the following intellectual reservations: i) that "the poor countries" is a highly abstract phrase, and that no diagnosis has any validity unless related to a specific area or country; ii) that many of the statements overlap, and are intricately linked with others. It is not sugges-

ted, of course, that any one statement is the definitive explanation; merely that each statement represents a distinctive emphasis.' Each of the statements was elaborated in a short paragraph.

Table 1 shows how the statements were ranked by the group as a whole at the start of the course. It is interesting to note that of the three statements ranked top, the first two have similarly been placed by other groups of student teachers. I hazard the guess that education is seen of key importance because they are training to be teachers, and climate because they often have a geographical background!

Evaluation — 1

Half way through the course, i.e. after seven sessions, the group were asked — somewhat to their disbelief — if they would like to write down their personal reflections on the course so far. Three main questions were asked, although it was pointed out that all and any comments would be welcome. The questions were: i) Rank the sessions so far on a 1 to 5 scale on the basis of their interest to you, the amount you felt you have learned etc; ii) What have been the main points of interest in the course so far for you?; and iii) How does this course compare with the rest of your geographical education so far (school and college)?

In order of interest the sessions were ranked as follows: World Food, A Question of Choice?, Colonialism and After, Education for Change?, The Population Myth, North-South Perspectives and Models of Development. The two most popular sessions undoubtedly relate, to a large extent, to the film **Face of Famine** (a BBC documentary from Concord Films) and the Altiplano Simulation (from **Teaching Geography** Vol. 5 No. 5).

The following comments illustrate what the group perceived as some of the main points of interest up to that point in the course: 'Looking at problems with a Third World viewpoint' . . . 'The fact that Third World problems are linked very closely with the rest of the world' . . . 'The historical aspects illustrating how cultures and problems have arisen' . . . 'Learning about **actual** happenings in the Third World; concern for **people** rather

1. A Question of Choice?

Philosophical realignment of Geography in the 1970's towards a concern for social justice. 'Accepting the status quo is as much a political act as opposing it' (D. M. Smith: Human Geography a Welfare Approach). North-South gap the single most important feature of the world today, and of the future. Defining the gap; indices of poverty. Altiplano Simulation illustrates some of the situations (mining, urban, farming, migrant workers) in which there appears to be choice, but it turns out to be between a range of bad options.

2. North-South Perspectives

Group's perception of Latin America followed by the very differing perception of some third world writers. Examples (in the film 'Viracocha') of perception reinforced by patterns of social dominance: the exploitative system in Bolivia where the mestizos assert their position over the campesinos. Latter directly arises out of colonial history.

3. Colonialism and After

No geography free of ethnocentric bias. Tends to be written from a perspective which is white, middle-class, Anglo-American and imperialistic. Reflected in film on the struggle in Namibia today. Galtung's structural theory of imperialism: Centre & Periphery nations, each in turn with their own centre and periphery. Common interests of centres to exclusion of peripheries.

4. World Food

Film ('Face of Famine') illustrates the facts of hunger — importance of grain — relative failure of Green Revolution — role of fertiliser — key dominance of the USA — difficulties of changing climate — a problem of distribution (who can afford to buy it) rather than of sufficient supplies. Importance of land reform, and difficulties of, due to need to change social structures.

5. The Population Myth

Population growth and statistics. Differing viewpoints at the UN Population Conference in Bucharest in 1974. Main problem not population growth but under-development: birth rate falls when standards of living rise for the majority.

6. Models of Development

Traditional: linear move from one state of society to another as a result of economic growth. But modernisation, economic growth not necessarily development. **Who** benefits and how? Underdevelopment not a state of backwardness but a **process**: system of exploitation in which the North dominates the South by trade, aid, neo-colonialism and thus underdevelops. Alternative: satisfaction needs; self-reliant, requires structural transformation.

7. Education for Change?

Need to rethink radically our definitions of education. Need for 'basic' education relevant to everyday life,

but people want to 'escape'. Changing education impossible without changing society, cf China/Tanzania. Paulo Freire and conscientisation.

8. Appropriate Technology

Problems of the Rich North are those of **over**-development. Negative consequences of technological development. Transfer of Northern technology related to traditional model of development. Characteristics of intermediate technology (cf. Schumacher). Compare with the alternative technology movement in the North and its aims.

9. The Chinese Model

Compare China pre-1949 and today. All typical third world problems solved in a quarter of a century. Nature and success of the communes, decentralised self-reliance. Talk by Dr Barnard, who has recently returned from China.

10. Who's Helping Who?

Origins and value of aid. Some examples of who gives aid and how it may be given: multilateral/bilateral; tied/untied. In particular look at differing attitudes to aid on the Left-Right spectrum. Is it aid or imperialism? Role of voluntary organisations in Central America.

11. Producer Power

Illustrated by the Trading Game. Most important North-South links, based on colonial trading patterns. Dependency imposed by trade. Growing confrontation, UCTAD IV in Nairobi 1976. North increasingly dependent on South for raw materials: reversal of roles! cf, OPEC. The multinationals; tea estates in Sri Lanka.

12. Global Images

Importance of a global perspective in the late 20th century. How do we get our images of the world/poverty? Demands and implications of the NIEO. Countries of the Periphery challenging the Centre. World models — Limits to Growth/Mankind at the Turning Point/L. American World model, and its different Third World assumptions. Importance of studying problems, background, values and action **together**. Stages in personal awareness.

13. Alternative Futures

The technological system break and rates of change. Vital importance of a future dimension and consideration of alternative futures. Related to attitudes towards technological change. Exploratory or normative visions? Optimistic/pessimistic/neutral? Scenarios for the third world. Can the decline of imperialism occur peacefully? Changes needed in the North. Counter-culture a response to overdevelopment. Examples of action.

14. How shall I teach it?

Why, what, when, where and how? Not specifically related to the exam, but in the long-term much more important! The third world should be two-thirds of the curriculum. . . .

than a formal textbook approach; an entirely fresh approach to Geography' . . . 'The simulation games proved interesting because I could see and work out the problems encountered in Third World countries' . . . 'Usefulness in terms of ability to relate the subject to the classroom' . . . 'I also found many of the reference items interesting, especially the **Latin America File**.'

An interesting discussion subsequently developed out of the last comment, about the books I had recommended. The **Latin America File** won unanimous acclaim, the contents of the resource wallet being seen as extremely useful, but **How The Other Half Dies** (which I felt was one of the best paperbacks available) was described as difficult to read. On the other hand **Latin American Development** was felt to be readable and more acceptable. The only reason I could think of for this — for the group were unable to articulate their feeling further — was that the latter followed a traditional geography text format (which nearly ten years of geography had accustomed them to), whereas the former followed a more journalistic format.

When comparing this course with their previous geographical education the following comments were offered: 'It seems to be practical rather than theoretical which makes it more interesting' . . . 'The course can actually be seen to be relevant to the present day' . . . 'Less like a lecture and not as formal in approach; more variety and relaxed atmosphere' . . . 'Very good reference materials and visual aids, . . . 'Best course followed so far in geography either in school or college' . . . The least formal course followed in college' . . . 'The different approach i.e. the social point of view, makes the course very interesting' . . . 'The whole course is an eye opener to me'.

It is interesting to note that these favourable comparisons all hinge around what should surely be the basic ingredients of **any** course, i.e. carefully chosen films and reference materials, a varied presentation, relevance to the classroom, and a relaxed atmosphere together with student participation.

Some of the other queries that students raised revealed their worries: 'Do the lectures and references we have relate to the exam? Have we enough information for a question on

a specific topic?' . . . 'Will everything be brought together and tied up at the end? How does what we have done relate to the exam questions?'

What generally seemed to surprise students most about this half-way evaluation was the very fact that they were even asked for their comments.

Evaluation — 2

When the end of the course was reached, hopefully after some of the fears expressed earlier had been allayed, the group were invited to make some concluding written comments if they wished. Five questions were suggested: How would they rank the last seven sessions in order of interest? Which three sessions in the whole course had made the biggest impact? Had the aims of the course been achieved at all? What were their thoughts on how the course had been run? Did they feel their attitudes about the Third World had changed at all?

The sessions were ranked in order of interest as follows: The Chinese Model, Who's Helping Who?, How shall I teach it?, Appropriate Technology, Producer Power, Alternative Futures, Global Images. Taking the whole course overall three sessions did stand out clearly as the most popular. In order these were: World Food, because of the impact of the film and 'the realisation that food issues affect all societies'; The Population Myth, in realisation that the Third World countries often view this issue not as one of overpopulation but of continuous underdevelopment by the rich North; and The Chinese Model, because of a good outside speaker who had been to China, and 'the way in which China seems to have solved many typical Third World problems'.

At least eighty percent of the group felt that all four aims of the course had been achieved. There were no categorical denials of this but some doubts and reservations were expressed in each case. The fourth aim — 'awareness of the complex interrelationships between North and South' — was seen as the one which had been most clearly achieved. Then came the second aim — 'origins and causes of dependency' — followed by the first, which was 'gaining a variety of perspec-

tives'. Last, but still considered by most to have been achieved, was 'encouraging informed opinion and examining strategies for solutions'.

Comments on how the course was taught generally hinged around appreciation of the variety of approaches: handouts, films, slides, simulations, outside speakers. The latter — who between them had experience of Central America, South America and China — were particularly appreciated. Criticism centred around too much use of the overhead projector, the lack of field work, group discussion sometimes going on too long, a wish for 'a few more straight lectures', and a complaint that I 'went round things too often without giving direct answers'.

Some comparisons were made again with school geography which had 'all been from textbooks and not at all real', and with the emphasis on facts (climate, agriculture, industry, site and situation) rather than on people and viewpoints. A consideration of the latter, combined with having to apply one's own opinions and ideas to situations, made the course 'very valuable to me personally' wrote one student.

Before the students did the attitude survey again at the end of the course, they were asked if they felt their attitudes about the third world had changed a lot, to some extent, a little, or not at all. Sixty percent of the group felt that their attitudes had changed a lot, whilst twenty percent felt their attitudes had changed to some extent, and twenty percent felt that their attitudes had changed a little. It is interesting to compare this reaction with the re-ranking of statements in the attitude survey shown in table 2.

The group's reassessment of the question 'Why are some countries so much poorer than others?' thus shows some interesting changes. Factors such as climate, education, religion, and overpopulation are all felt to be of less importance than previously. On the other hand factors such as the policies of rich countries, too little help and colonial exploitation, are now seen as much more significant. Admittedly this is in no way a scientific test to measure attitude change — indeed it may only reflect the biases of the course — but it does at least suggest a reconsideration

by the group of causal factors in world inequality.

Table 2: Attitude Survey — after the course
1. Policies of rich countries
2. Exploitation by richer countries
3. Bad government
4. Inadequate financial structures
5. Too little help
6. Low levels of education
7. Overpopulation
8. Poor diets
9. Difficult climate
10. Poor health
11. Too much help
12. Religion and superstition
13. People's character

I could here list some of my tentative conclusions about this experiment in evaluation but I feel that any final remarks should really be from the students themselves. The group were finally asked if they felt that the course had had any effect on them as a person. Seventy percent of the students thought that it had in some way, giving them a wider outlook, more understanding of the issues, making them more aware and able to empathise, and more inclined to teach about North-South relationships in school.

'I am more aware of these states as countries made up of individuals rather than just as starving millions' . . . 'Perhaps more aware of **our** responsibilities in the rich world' . . . 'More realisation of how well off we are — why should we think ourselves **above** other human beings? . . . ' 'Perhaps woke up my feelings of doing something for others as I am now more aware of what needs doing' . . . 'More critical of society and the system today'.

Can one perhaps discern a little bit of consciousness-raising in these reflections . . . ?
DAVE HICKS

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Peace in the Classroom: notes from a project in progress

Robert Aspeslagh, The Hague, Netherlands

In this article Robert Aspeslagh describes the work of a peace education project currently taking place in the Netherlands.

The project was set up in 1975 by the Netherlands Institute for Studies in Peace and Security. In the school year 1976-77 its first curriculum materials were tested with 12-year-old pupils in a number of Dutch lower vocational schools. The materials were then revised in the light of these trials, and were published (in Dutch) in autumn 1977 in three main parts: 'Talking or Fighting', 'Us and Them', and 'More or Less'. Robert Aspeslagh describes here briefly the concept of peace on which these materials are based, and some of the conclusions about peace education to which he and his colleagues in the project are coming.

The illustration on this page is from the unit entitled 'More or Less' (in Dutch, 'Meer of Minder'), and shows the distribution of income in the Netherlands — each little person in the diagram represents 10% of the population. There is also an illustration from 'Us and Them' (Zij en Wij) on page 38.

Introduction

'I don't like the idea of peace education — not, any way, if it involves discussions with the pupils. The children I teach aren't capable of rational thought and discussion. In my view they should keep quiet in lessons, and let me get on with the job I'm paid to do, which is to teach them, not discuss things with them.'

That was the view of a teacher in a Dutch school who had been working with the peace education project set up by the Netherlands Institute for Studies on Peace and Security in the Hague. Other teachers, however, have been considerably more enthusiastic. In this article I shall describe briefly how the project has operated and the materials which we have developed.

First, it is important to emphasise that we deliberately chose to work with, as they are called in the Netherlands, 'lower vocational schools'. These are schools attended by 12-16-year-old pupils who are typically from low-income groups in society, and who do not continue with education beyond the age of



16. We chose to work with such schools for four main reasons:

- (1) The children in them are at the bottom of the educational system and in the future most of them will be at the bottom of society;
- (2) These children and the schools they attend are almost a forgotten group: forgotten and underestimated by the government, and also forgotten and underprivileged amongst the organisations which work in the service of schools and teachers;
- (3) The underdogs of the system are very important to the whole society. About 40% of all children in the 12-16 age-group receive education at lower vocational schools. They are the workers of the future: later on they will have to do the manual jobs in industry, in construction, in shops, and in the administrative sector. They will earn a big share of the national income in the future, but they are socially under-rated and financially under-rewarded;
- (4) There is a lack of materials for this group of children and a lack of activities on the part of service-organisations in the field of curriculum development and teacher training.

Our conception of peace education

In an early discussion paper written for participants in the project we developed a conception of peace education in general, and designed a project for peace education in lower vocational schools in particular. The aims of peace education were subdivided into the three well-known areas of knowledge, attitudes and skills. A very brief definition of the overall aim was: **'to stimulate the readiness and to develop the capacities to participate in and to change society.'**

A 'society', in this definition, can be any group of people living together for some time, whether it is small and simple, or big and complex. The special contribution of peace education, compared to social and political education in general, lies in the development of knowledge, attitudes and skills relevant for participation in world society as a whole.

Peace is conceived by us as a relationship between individuals, groups or states in which conflicts are solved without resorting to violence. A peaceful relationship is not necessarily one where there are no conflicts, no problems, no hostility. For conflict can be considered as cause and effect of social/economic change: it can be an indicator of the need for change, and may arise between those who are striving for change and those who oppose it. Conflicts often start processes of change that can lead to a more just and peaceful society.

Peace in a positive sense exists in a society in which such conflicts are solved by means other than violence or threats of violence, and in which social justice is achieved. In peace education problems of war, peace, conflict and social justice have to be seen as social/economic problems both in a national and in an international context. The major problems in our view are violence, poverty and social injustice. These three problem-areas can be seen in a positive and a negative sense and on a small and a large scale.

Three main topics

On the basis of this more general conception of peace education we designed the project. The major goal of the project, so far as the needs of teachers were concerned, was to develop experimental curriculum and teach-

ing units for the age-group 12-16. The overall design of these units is as follows:

- for the first year (age 12) three units have been developed on the subjects of conflict, intergroup relations and attitudes, and social/economic inequality; these units contain examples and stories from the children's own immediate environment and from their own experience;
- in the second year the same topics are treated with examples from the national context;
- in the higher grades (ages 15-16) the same subjects are treated with examples from the international context.

The titles of the three units developed for the first year are **Talking or Fighting**, on conflict, **Us and Them**, on intergroup relations and attitudes, and **More or Less**, on social and economic inequality. Each unit consists of a booklet and an instruction manual for teachers, and working materials for pupils. The booklet for teachers gives a concise but systematic treatment of the subject. The teaching methods, the didactic possibilities, and the difficulties in transmitting the subject to the pupils, are taken into account in working out the subject for teachers. To achieve a readable and attractive booklet the style and the wording are adapted to the specific goals of the book, and to the requirements set by the teachers for whom it is written. Short stories, anecdotes, photographs and cartoons complete the text.

The manual contains a number of model lessons to help the teacher prepare a series of lessons or a project. The phrase 'model lesson' is used because each school, each classroom, each teacher, each teaching situation, is different. That is why the lessons cannot be more than an example, which may be helpful in practice. The manual provides for a treatment of the subject in a minimum of five lessons. Extra lessons are also included, which can serve as supplements to, or replacements for, the basic lessons. There are also lessons using specific methods or techniques (games, simulations, role-play, group-work, etc.).

Materials for pupils have been limited to only a few since the particular needs of pupils during the educational process are not

known. Therefore the materials for pupils should be regarded as examples of what teachers can produce themselves. Only the unit **Fighting or Talking** contains a booklet for the pupils. In the other two units, **Us and Them** and **More or Less**, the materials for pupils are included in the teacher's manual.

In the school year 1976-77 about 40 teachers tested these three units in the first year of the vocational school, though not everybody used all three. The units were available for all schools in the Netherlands at the beginning of the school year 1977-78.

Evaluation

By means of questionnaires and talks with teachers we tried to get an impression of the suitability of the trial materials. We soon realised that it is not always feasible to have a clear and complete evaluation of every lesson. The main reason for this is that teachers cannot be forced to perform their lessons in exactly the same way as described in the manual. The rather independent way in which teachers used the sample lessons strengthened our view that it is impossible to develop standard materials for peace education. Every class and every teacher works in different circumstances, and with different starting points. This is true even of classes and teachers in the same school.

It is nevertheless the case that teachers demand a detailed description of each lesson, for they otherwise feel themselves rather insecure. This we discovered with the first unit, **Fighting or Talking**. In the first draft of the manual for this unit we described lessons generally without going into detail, and without asking teachers to take the situation of the children and their own situation as a starting point. The teachers disliked this method of presenting lessons and asked for more guidelines, and for lesson plans in detail. The paradox was that even the teachers who were most keen to have detailed lesson plans departed in practice from the procedures which we recommended.

Another problem was that some of the teachers expected a direct and immediate effect from their lessons. 'Now pupils are able to manage conflicts' or 'now they are not prejudiced any more.' It was striking that it

was in particular the more experienced teachers who had this expectation. A sad experience occurred to a teacher one year before his retirement. Although we warned him to be careful he plunged into the project with great enthusiasm. After four lessons he created a conflict in the classroom which unfortunately he was not able to handle. Disappointed, doubting his capacities as a teacher, he dropped out. Younger teachers, and teachers with limited experience, were more willing to act on our advice. Their expectations ran less high than those of their more experienced colleagues.

Preliminary conclusions

In general we arrived at the conclusion that teachers involved in peace education should not work alone. Our reasons for this conclusion include the following:

(1) Peace education affects the school as a whole even when only one teacher tries to practise it. He or she cannot stop the processes at the door of the classroom. If one's colleagues are not well informed about what is going on the pupils and the teacher can end up in difficulties. In consequence we prefer to work with more than one teacher in a school. In cases where there is only one teacher we strongly encourage him or her to keep colleagues well informed.

Here is an anecdotal illustration of the problems which can arise. It was the last lesson of the day. The girls in the classroom were discussing relationships between teachers and pupils the starting point being a wall-picture portraying a conflict between teacher and pupils. Then another teacher came in and ordered two or three girls to tidy up the playground, in his usual authoritarian way. For the first time the girls refused and started a real conflict with this teacher, expecting support from their own teacher. Both teachers were very upset about what was going on and did not know how to manage the situation. Afterwards, when the second teacher got an explanation of the lessons, he understood the situation. Then they discussed the usefulness of tidying up the playground and the teacher tried to motivate the girls to do this themselves.

(2) Peace education is not easy. The

chances of failure are high. To fail in a lesson is not really bad, but for many teachers it is a bugbear. Teachers dropped out of the project because they had no opportunity to discuss their problems with colleagues or got no support from them. Fortunately this did not occur often, since in most instances the director of the school had agreed with our request to work in his school. Although in general the director was probably more influenced by the phrase 'peace education' than by the actual content of the materials, it was a great help for teachers to know that they were supported by the school authorities.

Further developments

In the school year 1977-78 we are working on units to be used by teachers in the second year of lower vocational schools. The units are concerned with the same topics as in the

CHANGE IN THE VILLAGE

Samanvaya: a resource wallet for teachers is about a school in Bihar State, India, inspired by the teachings of Mahatma Gandhi. It clearly shows the theory and practice of village-level development, self-reliance, community education.

The wallet includes a wide variety of papers for direct use by 12-15-year-old pupils, and a record, and colour transparencies. It has been compiled and written by Marieke Clarke, and is available for £3.75 from Oxfam Education Department, 274 Banbury Road, Oxford OX2 7DZ.

WORLD RELIGIONS AND WORLD AFFAIRS

'The diversity of the human family should be the cause of love and harmony, as it is in music where many different notes blend together in the making of a perfect chord . . .'

(Abdu'l-Baha — Bahai)

A useful collection of short texts and prayers for school assemblies has been compiled by Paul Long, and is available (price 40p, including postage) from the Council for Education in World Citizenship, 43 Russell Square, London WC1B 5DA.

'LEARNING TO LIVE IN A CHANGING WORLD'

A useful paper with this title is available free of charge from the Centre for World Development Education, 25 Wilton Road, London SW1V 1JS.

first year, but with examples from Dutch society. In line with the general topics of violence, attitudes and inequality, the units for the second year have the following tentative titles: Collective violence — Minorities — Social inequality. We should be glad to receive comments and enquiries from teachers in other countries.

ROBERT ASPESLAGH

Robert Aspeslagh works for the Netherlands Institute for Studies on Peace and Security, and is co-ordinator of the peace education project described in this article. He was formerly a teacher, and is a member of the peace education commission of the International Peace Research Association. He can be contacted for further details about his work at Nederlands Instituut voor Vredesvraagstukken, Alexanderstraat 7, Postbus 1781's — Gravenhage.

WHAT KINDS OF INSERVICE COURSE?

'The kids in my class are going to be unemployed next year. They know it, I know it. Teaching them about human rights in Iran or the spread of deserts in Africa is a sick joke, it's completely pointless . . .'

This is a quotation from a discussion exercise used at a conference held near Oxford, UK, in January 1978, entitled 'The School and the Wider World: what kinds of Inservice course do we organise?'

Some papers relating to the conference are available free of charge from Robin Richardson, World Studies Project, 24 Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, London SW1A 2JT.

DEVELOPMENT — PERSONAL, COMMUNITY, WORLD

'Individual, social or national development can only occur through interaction and relationships. We have no meaning or ground for being if left alone as an individual, and cultures are less enriched when isolated.'

These words are from the teacher's guide to a marvellous new kit of teaching materials for use with 8-12-year-old pupils. The kit is entitled **The People Grid**, and contains materials for three splendid activities — one on personal development, one on community development, one on world development. The kit was inspired by Margot Brown, written by Alec Davison, illustrated by Sue Henry, and printed by Kevin Flett. It is published by the Cockpit Arts Workshop, London and is available for only 50p (which is really excellent value) from Oxfam Education Department, 274 Banbury Road, Oxford. OX2 7DZ.

Language as a Window on the World: approaches through games and groupwork

John Rogers, Victoria University, New Zealand, and Regional Language Centre, Singapore

The main way in which pupils in the world's schools learn about another culture is through learning a foreign language. Of all the world's foreign languages the one most commonly taught in schools is English.

This article is about teaching English in South East Asia. It describes in particular the use of games and activities in small groups, and refers in this connection to the World Studies Project's handbook 'Learning for Change in World Society'. It is presumably relevant to the teaching of other foreign languages also.

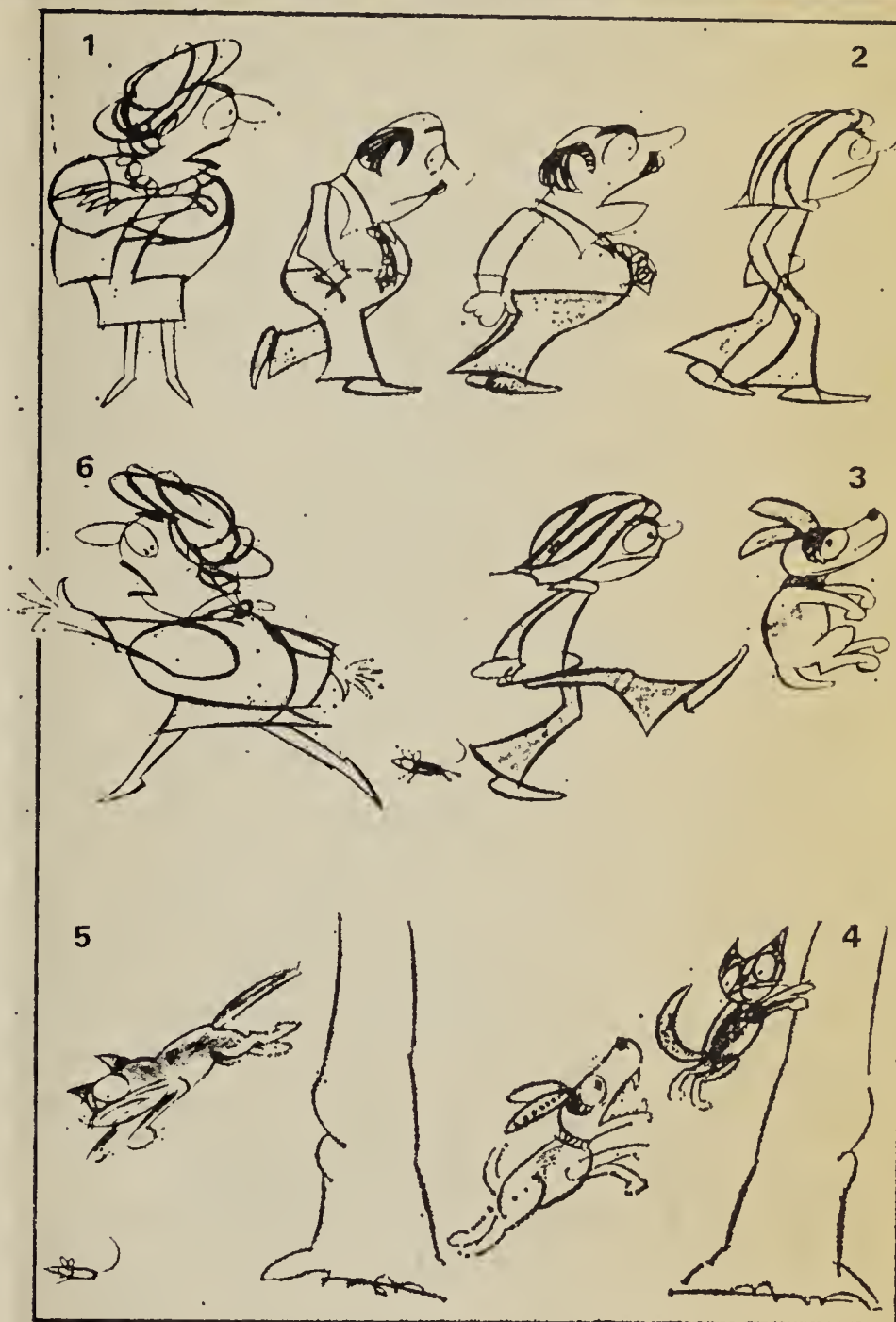
The illustration on this page is reprinted with acknowledgement to Punch. It appears also in 'Learning for Change in World Society', and is referred to in John Rogers's article.

Introduction

Although **Learning for Change in World Society** was mainly intended as a resource book for the study of contemporary world society in predominantly 'First World' secondary schools, I have found that this book is also very helpful in the teaching of English in the third world. In New Zealand I have been involved in training English teachers from Southeast Asia and New Zealanders who were going to teach English overseas or who might expect to find Polynesian children in their New Zealand classrooms. In Singapore I have also been involved in training Southeast Asian English teachers and have had an opportunity to experiment with **Learning for Change** activities in a number of local schools. It occurred to me that readers of **The New Era** might be interested to hear how some of the activities work with the third world citizens whom the book tries to help the first worlders understand.

Change of content

In the first place, the activities have provided a welcome and stimulating change of content. It has often been said that English teaching in countries where English is not the native tongue has provided a 'window on the world'. In practice, though, this window has often been opaque, if not totally blacked out, and



the view has only been turned in, on English itself. It seems to me that if, in an English lesson, learners do not learn something that they couldn't have learnt in any other lesson, then that English lesson is a failure. 'History of a Day', for example, (**Learning for Change**, page 59) presents students (and teachers) with a totally different way of looking at the history of the world. It is excellent for listening comprehension and note-taking. 'Several times are mentioned in the story. When you hear a time, write it down. Also write down what happened at these times.'

Unfortunately, 'History of a Day' emphasizes the fact that the book is intended to help First Worlders understand Third World-

ers. When a mixed group of Indonesians, Malaysians, Thais, Filipinos, Singaporeans, Koreans and Vietnamese hear world history presented, for once, from their point of view, there is nothing for them to say, except, 'Can we please have copies?' I said 'unfortunately' because language teachers often assume that learning takes place only when a story is followed by questions and answers and discussion. The silence that almost always follows 'History of a Day' seems to be a thinking silence.

Perhaps the materials for group interaction activities have been the most effective and the most motivating. And the reasons for this are not hard to find. Traditionally in Southeast Asia the classroom situation is a 'lockstep' situation, with the teacher at the centre of the stage. The focus is on teaching, learners are told what to learn and 'education' is the transfer of knowledge from teacher to pupil. Without the teacher there is no education or transfer. Pupils sit in rows, always. If and when a pupil speaks, he or she must stand up and very often pupils don't sit down again until the teacher tells them to. It is a very threatening situation for pupils. Pupils are afraid to speak in language classes in case they make mistakes. An American linguist and language teacher, Earl Stevick, calls this 'disease' 'lathophobic aphasia' — being afraid to speak for fear of making a mistake.

Learning for Change group activity sessions free the pupils from this anxiety. They are able to relax, and to talk to each other in small groups without being afraid of making mistakes. They begin to listen to **what** their classmates were saying, rather than to **how** they said it. The 'Getting It Together' activity (**Learning for Change**, page 79) is an excellent introduction to group work in language learning. Pupils and teachers are only accustomed to one-way traffic between teacher and class, and pupils and teacher. (Pupil to pupil traffic is generally unheard of!) Obviously, the follow-up discussion is best conducted in the mother tongue but one teacher who took part in my experiments immediately adapted the technique for English-teaching by cutting up cartoons from a local magazine in exactly the same way and adding a list of sentences that had to be matched with their respective

cartoons.

The 'Vicious Circle' Punch cartoon (**Learning For Change**, page 61), lends itself to a guided composition exercise. Each picture is stuck on a piece of card and each group of 6 students is given one set of 6 cards. They sequence the pictures and, as a group, make up a story to fit the pictures. Each group tells its story and different versions are compared. Helping words and phrases can be supplied if pupils need them. A group of Teacher Training College students in Malaysia got so carried away that they put their stories to music and sang them to me! The 'Vicious Circle' situation was very quickly extended to school and college life and then to the world at large.

The most language-productive activity and, in a foreign language learning context, the one that most easily brings the real world into the classroom, is 'Making and Improving' (**Learning for Change**, page 81). We introduced, occasionally by accident, some changes in the rules. Once the 'buyers' complained that the compass and scissors were not very good. We pointed out that surely every shopper, especially in a place like Singapore, Jakarta or Bangkok, carefully examines everything before handing over hard-earned money! Immediately, the teachers who were playing the 'game' saw how this activity could reproduce realistic shopping situations in the classroom.

To illustrate the capriciousness of supply and demand, the capitalist consumer system and the power of advertising, it was announced, as the manufacturing, buying and selling was in progress, that certain products were no longer in demand. Production lines had to be changed. At this stage several groups decided to sell their 'capital goods' (the equipment they'd invested in) back to the 'bank', which then announced that the equipment would be bought back at half-price. Inter-group bargaining and haggling then developed. The teachers very quickly saw how valuable this type of activity would be in language-learning and language-using classrooms. For many, it was the first time they'd ventured away from the stranglehold of the class textbook. Perhaps this type of work is better suited to mother-tongue learning and

use, but even so I feel that it's unfair to deprive the foreign-language teachers and learners of interesting material.

The 'Counting Out' activities (**Learning For Change**, page 84) prove ideal for group discussions. When the various group decisions are announced, another discussion immediately begins in which the different types of society suggested by the group decisions are compared and argued about. A similar activity is a consensus-seeking group activity where lists of items have to be ranked in order of importance or usefulness, e.g. items to help a group survive after a space-ship disaster, in a lifeboat, on a desert island. An important rule is that no voting or 'trading' is allowed; a genuine group consensus must be reached. I have found that after a few of these teacher-initiated activities have been done in class, students begin to think up their own situations for future discussions.

An obvious objection from foreign-language teachers is that since the verbal part of these group activities is so unstructured and so uncontrolled, these techniques practically invite students to make mistakes. It's true that students do make mistakes in the course of these activities. They also make mistakes in so-called controlled exercises, even in pattern practice. No one is suggesting that all language-learning classes should be so unstructured, but rather that variety can be introduced by the use of such activities.

Structured exercises

The **Learning for Change** activities at least give students a chance to use the language they've learnt and also an opportunity to use language to think and talk about the real world outside the language classroom. But even when these justifications have been made it can also be shown that not all these activities are likely to lead to mistakes through being uncontrolled. For example, the 'Small World' exercise (**Learning For Change**, page 40-41) provides controlled practice of correct 'if' sentences, with a lot of repetition of the correct, given tenses: 'If there **were** . . . this is where they **would be**.' Both form and content are controlled, but the real world is in the classroom. With a certain amount of ingenuity similar exercises can be

designed to incorporate other tenses and structures and to give controlled practice of these tenses and structures.

For my final example of interesting, yet controlled, English-as-a-second-language learning materials derived from **Learning for Change**, I have permission to quote from an excellent project developed by two English teachers from Malaysia and the Philippines. I had used 'The Cat and the Mouse' story (**Learning For Change**, page 62) in class as a listening comprehension exercise and then for practice of 'if' sentences and finally for discussion of the political and economic implications. Since all the teachers in the class were from third world countries in Southeast Asia which had all suffered in some way as a result of the operations of multi-national corporations, it was of immediate interest. While they all agreed that for various reasons such material might be considered 'inflammatory', two of them decided to see how it might be used in their classes, not for overt discussion of the ideas but for practice that, through repetition, might set their students thinking. All the exercises were put on tape for a listening exercise and worksheets were provided. First, certain difficult words were put in more familiar contexts and explained and tested. Then, after each paragraph of the story, two simple factual questions were asked, e.g.

How many tins of cat food did he ask for?

Who did the mouse see in the United States?

Next, students were asked to write down the last two words they heard each time a bell rang on the tape. The bell rang at the end of each paragraph so that they wrote down a list of the six items the mouse was asked to bring. These had to be matched with the names of the places where the mouse went to look for them. Finally, on a map of the world, the students marked in the mouse's journey, starting from their own country, and following instructions on the tape. In this way, students listened to the story several times, each time listening for something different. By the time a free discussion was started, they had learnt most of the facts and had learnt a lot of the story itself.

I have tried to show how the **Learning For Change** material and techniques can be used

to enliven language learning. The content is stimulating and the techniques encourage teachers to break away from rigid, inflexible, traditional methods. The material can help teachers learn how to stimulate their students' cognitive faculties instead of insulting them. Errors will of course be made but much more language is **used** and that 'window on the world' that English is supposed to be might be made transparent, and might open up a view of the real, outside world.

JOHN ROGERS

John Rogers is a senior lecturer at the English Language Centre, Victoria University, Wellington, New Zealand, and a specialist in applied linguistics at the Regional Language Centre of the Southeast Asian Ministers of Education Organisation, Singapore. He would be interested to hear from other teachers who have used **Learning for Change** activities for teaching English as a foreign or second language. He can be contacted at 30 Orange Grove Road, Singapore 10, Republic of Singapore.

The book to which he refers here, **Learning for Change in World Society**, is available from bookshops or else directly from the World Studies Project, 24 Palace Chambers, Bridge St., London SW1A 2JT, price £1.75.

IMAGES OF AFRICA

"How do you make a movie about Africa? One way **not** to do it was the way it was done by one American camera crew in the years before World War II. At the time, Hollywood had just 'discovered' the continent, and the producers sent a camera crew to do some filming on location. The team went to a spot near the Equator in Kenya, took its pictures, then sent the rushes home.

The spot looked likely enough on a map. But back in Hollywood, the producers were startled to find that the film showed only desert and scrubland. 'Where's all the jungle?' the movie executives fumed. And so the camera crew had to travel a thousand miles from their original location to find a jungle that Hollywood considered 'typically African'."

This is the start of a splendidly useful book on modern Africa for 14-16-year-old students. Time and again the book explicitly challenges, as in the quotation above, the stereotype images which Westerners have of Africa. It uses many concrete stories and anecdotes, all carefully written in simple but striking language, to portray African culture and politics in the 1970s.

The book is by Allen Boyd and John Nickerson, and is one of seven in the Scholastic World Cultures Program. Other books in the same series are about India, Latin America, Middle East, China, Soviet Union, and Southeast Asia. The series is intended for American high schools, but is readily usable in all other English-speaking countries. Details from Scholastic Book Services, 50 West 44th Street, New York, NY 10036, USA.

'ALTERNATIVE' — a world studies newsletter

A new magazine for teachers, entitled **Alternative**, is being produced by the Nordic Working Group on Development Education. It appears twice a year, and is concerned in particular with classroom methods and techniques. An English version is available free of charge from Jeanne Vickers, Unicef Information Division, Palais des Nations, 1211 Geneva, Switzerland.

'JUST LIVING'

In autumn 1978 various churches and voluntary agencies in the UK are arranging a One World Week — 'a programme of study and action about justice, peace and development at home and overseas.' There will be a kit for group leaders, and various other materials. Details available from Pat Gerrard, 240 Ferndale Road, London SW9 8BH.

COMMODITIES, TRADE, DEVELOPMENT

The World Development Movement has many very useful factsheets, and publishes **Spur**, a newspaper about world trade and development. Details from WDM at Bedford Chambers, Covent Garden, London WC2E 8HA.

YOUR COMMUNITY IN THE WORLD

Some excellent educational activities and materials are being developed by the Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives. Details from Gerald Marker, 513 N. Park Street, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

Why Teach about World Religions? — a review of some of the reasons

Robert Jackson, Coventry College of Education, UK

In this article Robert Jackson separates out four different kinds of reason which may be given for teaching about world religions.

First, there are arguments from an analysis of religion itself; second, arguments connected with the notion of ultimate philosophical questions; third, arguments connected with the nature of contemporary world society and the need for international understanding; fourth, arguments related to the multi-ethnic and multi-cultural nature of many individual societies.

Robert Jackson writes specifically about Britain. But his four-fold distinction is probably relevant to most or all other Western countries, and perhaps to other countries also. The article closes with a checklist of the main kinds of knowledge and attitude which can reasonably be expected of teachers who teach about religions other than their own.

The illustration on this page is a woodcut by the Indian artist Chittaposad, and is reprinted from the World Studies Project's 'Learning for Change in World Society.'

Introduction

During the last thirty years many important developments have taken place in Britain in the area of religious education. One of the most significant has been the growing attention given to the study of non-Christian religions alongside the study of the Christian faith(1). A glance through the catalogue of almost any educational publisher will illustrate the current interest in world religions, a concern also reflected in some of the more recent Local Authority Agreed Syllabuses (2). Nevertheless, the place of world religions in the curriculum is still controversial and there is plenty of animated discussion about it. Much of the debate ignores various important arguments for and against the inclusion of world religions in the curriculum. At the practical level this can result in, say, a head-teacher discouraging the study of world religions simply because he has no immigrants in his school or another encouraging it solely to promote good community relations. This article is an attempt to untangle the principal varieties of argument for the place of world



religions in the curriculum that have appeared in recent educational writing.

Arguments from 'religion'

There are two arguments from 'religion' which might be summarised as follows: (a) there is a unique area of human experience which can be called 'religion', or a distinctive way in which people make sense out of the world which is 'religious'; and (b) elucidation of what 'religion' means requires examination of a range of phenomena which exhibit certain family resemblances, to the extent that they can sensibly be dubbed 'religious'.

The first argument emerged from work done in the philosophy of education, and a British version of it is found in the work of Paul Hirst(3). One of Hirst's contentions is that a liberal education is initiation into the widest possible range of human knowledge. Such knowledge is ultimately divisible into a cluster of 'forms', each unique in having its own logic,

appropriate methods of enquiry, and truth tests. Although, says Hirst, it is impossible to know whether religion is strictly speaking a form of knowledge (for there are no agreed objective tests for religious claims), it is certain that people who practise religion and who make religious claims do exist, and their beliefs, attitudes, values, etc., constitute a body of knowledge which can form the basis of study.

An American version of the first argument appears in the work of Philip Phenix, who uses the term 'realms of meaning' to characterise the distinctive ways in which man makes sense of his experience(4). Phenix, like Hirst, considers that in religion there lies a distinctive body of knowledge that can be fruitfully studied by anyone, regardless of commitment. Both use the term 'religion' rather than 'religions', though neither attempts a precise definition of the term. (Indeed, there is no clear agreement among philosophers who do attempt such a definition). However, both refer to the religions of mankind as providing data for the study of religion, and the term 'religion' itself suggests certain common features to be found in religions — a theme orchestrated in several arrangements by Ninian Smart which illustrate the second argument outlined above(5).

It is particularly Smart's work in the philosophy and phenomenology of religion which has drawn the attention of a wide readership to the multifaceted nature of religion, and the organic character of religions. Whatever its flaws, Smart's familiar analysis of religion into six dimensions has had a wide appeal to teachers, supplying clear criteria for selecting themes from a range of religions and providing a skeleton which can be covered with the living flesh of any religion(6). Smart's influence — through his writings, his Department of Religious Studies at Lancaster, his involvement with the Schools Council projects in religious education and with the Shap working party on world religions — has been enormous; but the rationale which underpins his work belongs to the same class as that of Hirst and Phenix. All three are concerned, in their different ways, to expound the principle that the properly educated person should be introduced to the

full breadth of human experience, and that includes man's religious experience.

The argument from 'ultimate questions'

The emphasis in this argument moves from the body of knowledge about religions to certain key questions relevant to the life of every person. In summary, the argument is that world religions should be approached through the exploration of 'ultimate questions' for these ensure the relevance of religious data to the student's life.

The term 'ultimate questions' (associated with the work of Paul Tillich) has become popular to distinguish such questions as 'Will inflation make my salary worth less?' or 'Will I get a job next year?' from such basic questions as 'Who am I?', 'Am I free?', 'Why is there so much undeserved suffering?', 'Who is my neighbour?' or 'Is death the end?', though clearly the two sets of questions are not unrelated. Whether the questions themselves are religious is a matter for theological debate, though various answers to them need not be overtly religious. The important point is that all religions are deeply concerned with them and some of the most penetrating religious literature has been written in their exploration.

With this approach the relevance of the questions to the pupil's own life provides the motivation for study; the body of knowledge from world religions gives information, but primarily stimulates the pupil in his or her own search for a philosophy or a theology of life. The roots of the approach lie in existentialist theology and in the move towards 'child-centredness' or 'child-relatedness' in education. Its clearest manifesto is in **The Fourth R**, an Anglican report published in 1970 by a commission on religious education in schools under the chairmanship of I. T. Ramsey, who was then bishop of Durham(7). The influence of Ramsey's own theology on many parts of the report is evident:

'Man is a creature who finds himself perplexed with the mystery of his existence. He knows that he is, and ponders why he is, what he is, and what he is for. From the start of recorded history he has sought to find answers to the enigma of his origin and destiny, he has puzzled about the meaning

and purpose of his life. The great religions of the world find their frame of reference within these ultimate questions which man has asked and continues to ask — questions which are a part of the human condition. The aim of religious education should be to explore the place and significance of religion in human life and so to make a distinctive contribution to each pupil's search for a faith by which to live' (8).

It is sometimes said that this approach is outdated, part of the RE of the sixties. The RE of the seventies aims primarily at bringing about an understanding of religion and is not so naive as to assume that every pupil is searching 'for a faith by which to live'. Yet although many young people may not overtly attempt to formulate a faith or a philosophy of life, all at some stage have to come to terms with themselves in relating to other people and to the world at large and it is difficult to see how questions such as 'Who am I?' and 'Why undeserved suffering?' are not relevant to the process (9).

Arguments from an analysis of world society

The 'arguments from religion' emphasise the point that to be properly educated a person should be introduced to the study of religion. The 'argument from ultimate questions' focuses on the needs of learners as individuals and provides a criterion for making the data of religion relevant to the individual student. The third and fourth types of argument both refer to the needs of society. The third type is linked with the emergence since the 1950's of courses having some kind of 'global' or 'all-world' perspective and the two commonest versions as they relate to religions can be summarised as follows:

(a) In order to promote international understanding it is necessary to learn about cultures other than our own, and this involves the study of world religions.

(b) In order to tackle international problems it makes sense to study the material already written about these by people who have experienced them at first hand. As many of these people are adherents of world faiths, the study of their work will in some ways involve a study of their religions.

The technological revolution has given us unprecedented opportunities for international understanding and co-operation, yet at the same time has dramatically increased the threat of war on a vast scale. It is with the aim of promoting the former and preventing the latter that such bodies as Unesco have encouraged courses in education for international understanding. The result has been the growth of a family of courses which include development studies, third world studies, world history, modern studies, world studies and so on, which generally require contributions from a range of subject discipline.

Such courses tend to emphasise both the acquisition of knowledge and the clarification of values. For example they involve knowledge about other cultures, their histories and political systems, their art forms and religions etc; and also knowledge about international problems such as poverty, pollution, conflict and terrorism, with some analysis of their causes. The evaluative element involves discussion of what action might be taken to overcome such problems, an enterprise involving the statement of basic values towards which change ought to be directed. World religions are an important resource for such work. They provide information about the cultural background, and various religious and moral perspectives on the problems being considered which can act as a stimulus for the student's own thinking and action.

Two randomly chosen examples of the 'information' aspect are an article by Dr James Henderson arguing the need to understand Islam if we hope to understand the world (10), and 'Islam — from Yesterday to Tomorrow' in which Richard Tames discusses the implications for the western world of the unifying factor of the Muslim faith (11). Recent examples of religiously committed positions on world problems are found in the work of Gandhi's disciple Vinoba Bhave presenting a Hindu reformist view on, for instance, education and land distribution (12) and in the writing of Thich Nhat Hanh who gives a Buddhist's perspective on the recent war in Vietnam (13). Various examples of curriculum material illustrating committed Christian stances on world problems are also currently

available (14).

World studies is of course only worth doing if it achieves its stated aims of increasing the pupil's awareness of other cultures and of world problems. Success in this depends initially on the skill of teachers and producers of resource material for schools. One example of a selection of world studies 'reflections, activities and resources' which does succeed imaginatively in relating facts and issues directly to classroom experience is **Learning for Change in World Society**, published by the World Studies Project (15). It is suggested in this book that the basic subject matter for a world studies course might be evoked by asking four questions, each summarised by a key word.

What are the world's problems? — **problems**

What is the background to the problems? — **background**

What can be done, and what is being done? — **action**

What sort of world do we want to move towards? — **values**

The four key words are used as the basis for a topic web which ensures that facts are collected only in attempting to answer these four central questions and to see how they relate to each other. The 'reflections', 'activities' and 'resources' in the book provide a great deal of stimulus for the pursuit of this task. Some material on religions is also included, which could be supplemented by the teacher.

4) **Plural society arguments**

Another cluster of arguments which sees the study of world religions as helping to overcome certain problems created as a result of social change concentrates on the national society in which we live. During the last thirty years British society has become more religiously plural than ever before. The decline of organised Christian practice has paved the way for the rise of secular alternatives to religion and the growth of 'fringe' religions, while migrants from eastern Europe and the West Indies have introduced Christianity in previously unfamiliar forms. At the same time Asian communities from the Indian sub-continent and Africa have brought Hinduism,

Islam and Sikhism to our cities.

Insofar as these changes have taken place, Britain can be described accurately as a plural society. This is not, of course, a denial of Britain's Christian cultural heritage, nor is it a refutation of the considerable influence that Christianity still has on many of our institutions: it is simply an assertion of the fact that British society includes many adherents of non-Christian religions and philosophies. Because of this fact of pluralism there have been arguments advanced from a number of sources to the effect that religious education should be broadened in order to reflect the range of religious and secular ways of life currently present in our society. There tend to be three arguments which have a bearing on world religions.

The first argument is that the religions of immigrant communities should be taught in multi-racial schools in order to promote understanding and tolerance. The fostering of good community relations in multi-racial schools is a laudable aim, but as it stands the argument leaves the way open for the weak but often stated reply from teachers claiming that as they work in non-multi-racial areas the religions of immigrant groups are of no relevance to the pupils in their schools. This problem is anticipated by those putting forward the second argument which emphasises the multi-racial nature of our society as a whole. The argument is that the religions of immigrant communities should be taught in all schools and colleges as part of the preparation for life in a multi-racial society. One version of this argument is found in the policies of the National Association for Multi-racial Education, whose stated aim is 'to play an active role in making the changes required in the education system which will further the development of a just multi-racial society.' One of the changes the Association seeks to effect is in the curricula of all types of schools 'so that children can study the history, religion and culture of their own and other ethnic groups. This eradication of ethnic bias in curricula has the aims of improving children's self concepts and of developing mutual respect among pupils' (16).

As in the first argument, the study of religions is seen as instrumental in promoting

good community relations. Only the anti-democratic person would criticise such an aim. However, if promotion of good community relations is the only aim in studying religions there is a danger of superficial or piecemeal treatment, with topics such as dress and food chosen for their obvious relevance to community relations, while subjects such as worship, crucially important in understanding religion, may be omitted.

The third argument overcomes this criticism. It is that the religions of immigrant communities should be studied because they are fascinating examples of living religions which can be studied at first hand. Proponents of this view tend already to be convinced by the 'arguments from religion' discussed above, but in choosing which religions should be studied they see a tremendous opportunity through the presence of immigrant communities in our society for the study of some of the world's major religions as actually lived and practised(17). Close and careful study inevitably increases understanding between the student and the adherents of the religion studied. Community relations are therefore improved, but this is secondary to the fundamental aim of understanding religion.

One difficulty with this approach is that many students do not have access to places of immigrant settlement. This can be overcome to some extent by using the growing number of books and audio-visual materials which deal with world religions in Britain, and by making visits(18). In all cases this work requires sensitivity and careful preparation on the part of teachers and students to ensure an attitude of respectful enquiry, and to avoid any misunderstandings. Another criticism could be advanced that most immigrant communities do not exemplify world religions in a truly representative way. Sikh temples in Britain do not match the splendour of the Golden Temple at Amritsar; the way in which festivals are celebrated in Britain may involve adaptations which have taken place as a result of migration, and so on. Here a corrective can be supplied by the judicious use of audio-visual material and by reference to literature on Asian religion in Britain(19).

Conclusion

Whatever reasons a teacher gives for teaching about world religions it is important that he or she should have certain basic knowledge and attitudes before beginning. The following notes are offered as guidelines:

1) The teacher should know how to find information from primary sources in translation, or good (i.e. recommended by a specialist) secondary sources.

2) The teacher should be in touch, if possible, with adherents of the faith in question to discuss problems, ask questions, organise visits.

3) The teacher should have access to scholars who will be able to answer queries or advise on bibliography, etc.

4) The teacher should be satisfied that he or she has a thorough basic knowledge of principal beliefs, historical background, worship and festivals — enough not to make the kind of basic mistakes that generate distrust among adherents of the faith being studied.

5) The teacher should have an attitude of respect towards the religion being studied.

6) The teacher should have an attitude of being a learner, or searcher, not an expert.

7) The teacher should be ready and willing to revise ideas in the light of new knowledge.

8) The teacher should resist imposing preconceptions on the data studied.

ROBERT JACKSON

Robert Jackson is a lecturer in religious studies at Coventry College of Education. He was formerly a teacher of religious studies in a secondary school, and has in recent years written and produced several programmes, to do with religions and moral education, for BBC Schools Radio. His article here in **The New Era** is a much abbreviated version of a paper which is to be published later this year in **Perspectives on World Religions**, a collection of essays which he has edited for the School of Oriental and African Studies. Further details about the book are available from the SOAS Extramural Division, Malet St., London WC1E 7HP.

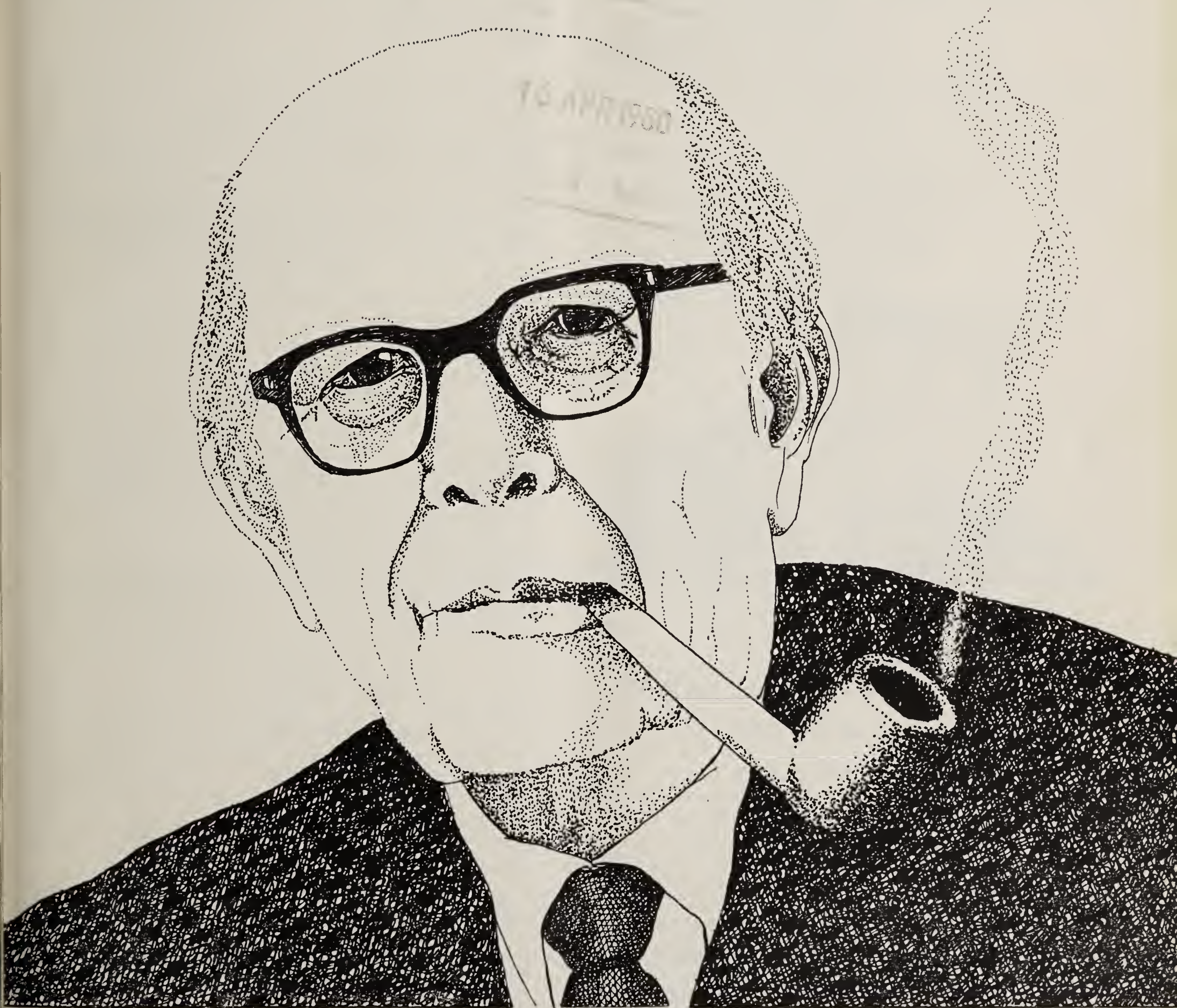
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JEAN PIAGET

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ON JEAN PIAGET

This issue of the *New Era* is devoted to honouring the work of a great man. Professor Jean Piaget has devoted his life to understanding the development of children by the study of what he calls 'genetic epistemology'. By the application of these researches he hopes to improve education by giving teachers a clearer understanding of how children think and learn and thus create a better world by producing clear-thinking and creative individuals.

It is therefore no accident that he has been a leading member (and now honorary vice-president) of the WEF for 57 years since its foundation, as he recalls in his warm introductory message to this issue. He has through his own tireless research inspired generations of educators and collaborators around the world, and endeavoured to foster what the creator of the *New Era* and the WEF, Beatrice Ensor, set out to achieve with a small group of idealistic educators, including himself. Namely, first to discover what is needed in a particular educational context, and then after careful evaluation, to test the results of these researches in the laboratory of the actual classroom. Having successfully done this, to influence the direction and thrust of the whole educational system. Few, if any, educational researchers in our century have been as thorough, deep and tirelessly productive as he. It now remains to make his work more widely known and applied. There can be no question of the great and growing influence of Jean Piaget's work on the progress of education, but, as several of our contributors point out, his invaluable work is still not known, appreciated nor understood as widely as it deserves, especially amongst practising teachers. It is in an attempt albeit very modest, to make his work more widely known, especially in the USA and other non-French speaking countries, that we have published this issue.

It is impossible in one short issue of a journal to do full justice to the work and thought of a researcher who has been producing papers, books and articles amounting to nearly 20 million words over 72 years, and is still at 82 tirelessly productive. But readers unfamiliar with his work will do well to study carefully Nasrine Adibe's contribution and her helpful bibliography in our reviews section for a concise summary of his work. Also of great benefit, we hope, to the reader wishing to learn more of Professor Piaget's work are the eight volumes on his research reviewed by Professor W. D. Wall. In addition, Dr Mary Ann Pulaski, who also contributes to this issue, has written a most informative book on **Understanding Piaget** (see bibliography) to which readers wishing to learn more about Prof. Piaget's interesting life and the precise terminology he uses are referred.

The international collaboration between distinguished contributors from both sides of the Atlantic, which is a

feature of this issue, is typical of the spirit of fellowship of the WEF, and it is hoped will be a feature of future issues.

We trust that readers will join us in wishing Professor Jean Piaget a happy and productive future and thank him for his immense contribution to the progress of education around the world. M.W.W.

THE NEW ERA AND THE WEF: AN IMAGINARY DIALOGUE

Working late on the 'New Era' in order to prepare copy for our indefatigable printer Alan Shaw — a familiar experience to former and current editors and now to myself as a newcomer to the team — I suddenly fell asleep at my desk and within the twinkling of an eye found myself (M.W.) in the benign presence of our founder editor Mrs Beatrice Ensor (B.E.). The following animated dialogue then ensued:

M.W. I wonder what you think of the 'New Era' 57 years on, and of our efforts to improve it in order to boost circulation

B.E. You have indeed brightened it up with more pictures, notably on the front cover. But remember that content is more important than form. The 'New Era' should bring people together, and it's good to see more news from Sections and about individuals in the WEF. And always bear your readers in mind.

M.W. Agreed. And what do you think of our plans to expand the 'New Era' and the WEF (since subscription to the one implies membership of the other, and vice-versa) by publicity campaigns, etc.?

B.E. I am naturally very pleased that they should be expanded. People all over the world need to know more about the good work for education both inside and outside the school which has been done by the WEF and its messenger the 'New Era'. But let's think carefully about how we go about it. Means and ends can't be separated. Otherwise, promote 'New Era' and the WEF as vigorously as you can. The foundations have been laid for further expansion.

M.W. Such expansion will probably mean more work for both the central Headquarters and Editorial Board and also Sections and Section Editors, and possibly more bureaucracy.

B.E. Yes, but we always tried to keep that to a minimum. How I hated those awful files! You see, if people are working in a small group and have

the same tendencies you don't have to spell out rights and duties. But when an organisation gets bigger this has to be done.

M.W. Don't you like the idea of change?

B.E. Of course I do, I worked all my life for it! Ideas, methods and organizations are bound to change in time, otherwise they would be dead, and the 'New Era' and the WEF have never been that. But there can be constancy even in the midst of change. The constant factor in all the many years of existence of the WEF has been the fact of its Fellowship. Whatever else you do stick to that. It's essential.

M.W. I have certainly experienced the strength and warmth of that Fellowship in my brief period as a member and editor, but how do you expand an organic Fellowship while retaining its essential character?

B.E. By not rushing too much and using a strengthened 'New Era' to build on the strong ties and networks between members all over the world which already exist. Also by the personal approach to likeminded individuals and organisations, and at Conferences. It still surprises me that such an insignificant movement such as ours was initially should have attracted so many educators from different countries and that we succeeded, as we did in changing the approach to education in the State system and also outside it. Perhaps it was because we looked beyond the present into the future and acted as a catalyst to stimulate new ideas which had been tested in the classroom.

M.W. I have certainly been greatly stimulated by my short membership of the WEF, but would you say that you were satisfied with what has been achieved so far by so few volunteers and with so little resources?

B.E. Yes and no. Progress in education has been made all round the world and we played our part. But the idea of the 'New Education', as we called it, was conceived in the midst of a terrible World War in the hope that a different approach to education might make it possible

to avoid another one. This was not to be, and mankind is still not free from the threat of yet another holocaust. The key is education, and our movement, which is not sectarian or political, should help to foster the changes required by our one world.

M.W. What changes, and how can individual teachers help?

B.E. It's not possible to be too explicit, but there should be more cooperation instead of competition, and a feeling of responsibility amongst young people that they are making society by what they do, feel and act. Teachers can be of vital assistance here in altering young people's attitudes to life along these lines. Also young people need to be introduced to the world of work before leaving school and find out about its problems and responsibilities.

M.W. I have certainly found a great spirit of co-operation in the WEF and the 'New Era' — especially for this issue from all my fellow editors, but notably Nasrine Adibe in New York and Tony Weaver in London — but is what you have outlined enough? Can you be more explicit?

B.E. Not really. I felt that wars couldn't happen if individuals were given the right environment, especially in early life. In every human being there is that mysterious thing called 'life' or 'soul' which has enormous potentialities if given the right conditions and stimuli to develop and unfold.

M.W. And what about the future?

B.E. The 'New Era' refers to a period of global understanding, cooperation and peace.

M.W. And when will that be?

B.E. Don't ask me, just stop talking and get on with the job!

MICHAEL W. WRIGHT

(With acknowledgements to 'New Era', Vol. 56, No. 8, November 1975, pp.186-9.)



CENTRE INTERNATIONAL
D'EPISTEMOLOGIE GENETIQUE
F P S E — U N I T Y

**Message aux membres de la
World Education Fellowship**

Mes chers Collègues et Amis,

J'ai appartenu à la World Education Fellowship dès sa fondation et me rappelle avec grand plaisir ma collaboration avec Mrs Ensor. Depuis lors, je n'ai cessé d'admirer l'activité de votre Société et le rôle qu'elle a joué dans les progrès de l'éducation.

Je souhaite donc de tout coeur que votre travail se poursuive avec le même succès et je forme tous mes voeux les plus amicaux à cet égard.

J. PIAGET
6 Mars 1978

**Message to the members of the
World Education Fellowship**

'My dear Colleagues and friends,

I have belonged to the World Education Fellowship since its formation, and recall with great pleasure my collaboration with Mrs Ensor.

Since then, I have not ceased to admire the activity of your Society, and the role which it has played in the progress of education.

I therefore wish with all my heart that your work will continue with the same success and offer my best and most friendly wishes to this end.'

J. PIAGET
6 March 1978
University of Geneva,
International Centre of Genetic Epistemology

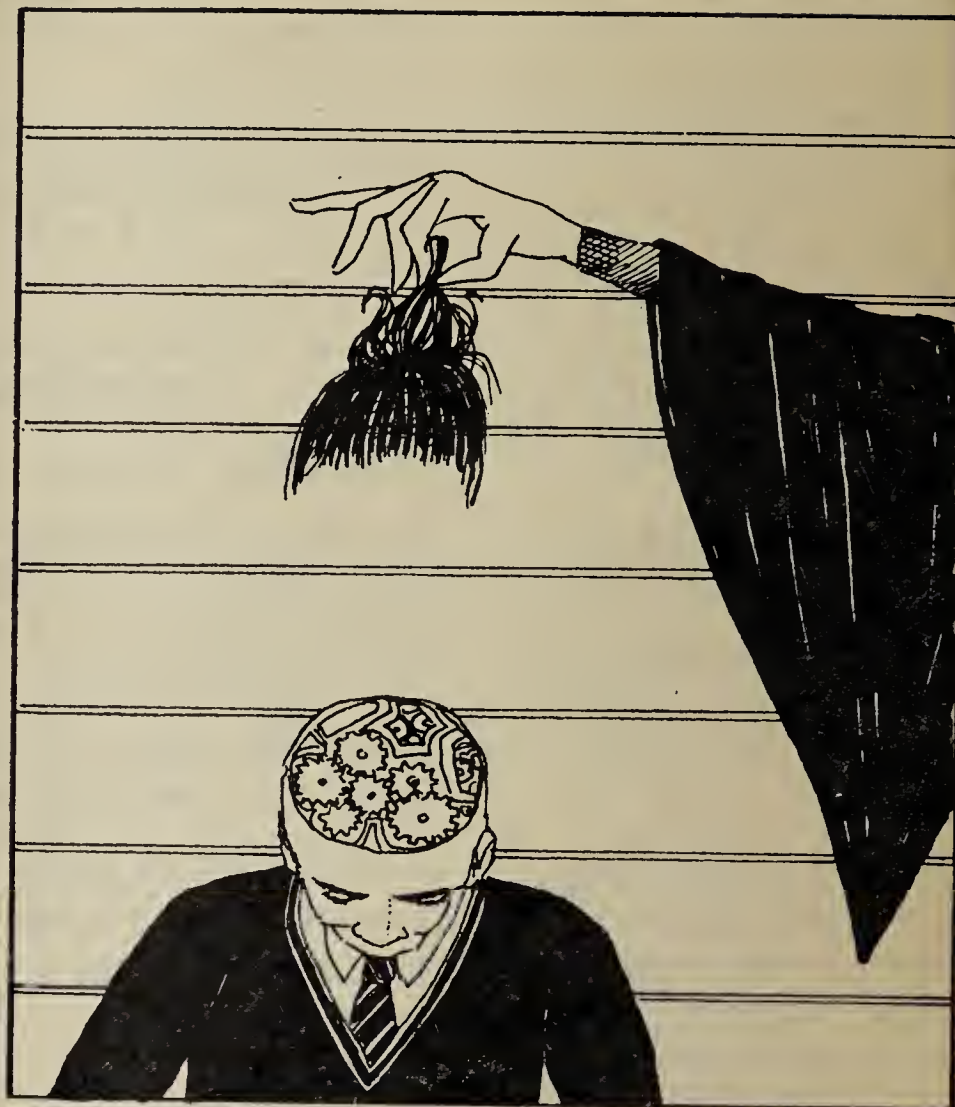
The Many Implications of Piaget's Work for Education

Nasrine Adibe, C.W. Post Center Long Island University, New York, USA

In this thought-provoking article, Nasrine Adibe argues that the work of Piaget can be of immense value to both teachers and students at all levels if more widely understood. Acknowledging the difficulties of making Piaget's often abstract and widely dispersed work comprehensible to the practising teacher, and the dangers of oversimplification, she argues that the attempt is worth making in the interests of better education everywhere. Her six part article focuses first on the difficulties of assessing student's cognitive levels, — familiar enough to all educators — and shows how a knowledge of Piaget's stages of development and the application of his 'clinical method' of listening to students' errors can be of immense help in this difficult task. She goes on to discuss the vital role of language in teaching and learning and uses Piaget's theory of the operational, symbolic nature of language, to point out the dangers of equating a student's verbal facility with his understanding of the concepts being taught. Next, she points out how Piaget's work on the way children at various stages explore objects has implications for teaching at all levels, and recommends that teachers should first present the 'global' aspect of a concept, then analyse it, and leave the final synthesis to the student. On the most important topic of motivation, Nasrine Adibe points out how Piaget's theory of disequilibrium (i.e. catching the student 'off balance') is of great value to the teacher, and recommends surprise and play for stimulating curiosity. Dr Adibe then utilises Piaget's theory that emotions and intellect are inextricably connected to warn against a content oriented approach to teaching, and reminds teachers that learning at all levels is a humanistic, interactive activity. She concludes her article by stressing Prof. Piaget's idealistic concern that the educational process, by being better understood, should produce more critically aware individuals if a better world is to be established. It could be argued that many of the above viewpoints are not exclusive to Prof. Piaget, but it is clear from this article that a wider application of his immense labour along the lines suggested would greatly improve education as it is now.

Introduction

Piaget's publications are numerous and widely dispersed. Only a small percentage has been translated into English. His findings on the nature of knowledge, on the genesis of intelligence and its development from infancy to adulthood are the result of over half a century of continuous research. His methods are



unique and manifest his great empathy and sensitivity to the mental activities of the subjects he has observed. His solid background in biology, logic, mathematics, philosophy, and psychology have enabled him to integrate ideas and research from various disciplines in formulating his theories. He continually revises and refines his conclusions in the light of the new evidence for or against his findings.

Because Piaget's findings provide insight into the complex and mysterious working of the human brain, his observations have particular significance for universal education: by studying his findings teachers are sensitized to student's mental processes. In Elkind's words, 'after becoming acquainted with Piaget's work, teachers can never again see children in quite the same way as before' (1). Or, as another author puts it, the effect is like 'taking the top off the child's head and watch-

ing the wheels go round' (2). We become sensitive to the importance of a real understanding of **concepts** as opposed to the memorization of **facts** by learners, and we re-examine our traditional views regarding intelligence, experience, and maturity. As a result we become more critical of the existing instructional strategies and the innovative practices introduced in education.

It is only since the 1960's that Piaget's work has become popular among educators. Since then, we have witnessed an acceleration in the translation of Piaget's work into English and the mushrooming of publications in English interpreting Piagetian theory.

As Piaget's work has been popularized and simplified, it has often been misinterpreted, taken out of context of his overall view and prematurely applied. Piaget's formulation is not easy to understand. In formulating his theories Piaget draws models and synthesized information from the fields of biology, mathematics, philosophy, physical sciences, and psychology. Therefore, a knowledge of the major concepts in these fields is essential and a knowledge of French is helpful to grasp fully Piaget's theories.

This article attempts to point out the many dimensions of Piaget's work that touch the process of teaching and learning without the use of unfamiliar technical terms.

A. Assessing Students' Cognitive Levels

In order to adjust his teaching strategies to the class as a whole, and to plan for appropriate activities to meet different individual needs, a teacher utilizes various diagnostic techniques to assess his students' conceptual level. As the experienced teacher knows, not all of these techniques are effective.

Piaget has made two important contributions, one theoretical the other practical, to help the teacher in this assessment (a) by delineating four critical stages of development which the teacher can look for in his studies, and (b) by providing a simple but effective clinical method of listening to student's errors so that their appropriate level of development

can be assessed. These will now be discussed in turn.

a) Piaget's Developmental Stages

Piaget describes intellectual development as evolving through various **stages** in the individual development of the child. In Piaget's words: 'development is achieved by successive levels and stages' (3), each of which lays the foundation for its successors. The four most important stages he recognizes are now well known: the **sensory-motor stage**, the **pre-operational stage**, the **concrete operational stage**, and the **stage of formal operations**.

Let us note he writes that these stages are precisely characterized by their set order of succession . . . That is, in order to reach a certain stage, previous steps must be taken, and the prestructures which make for further advance must be constructed (4).

This is one of Piaget's most popular formulations. But what is often overlooked is that these stages do not correspond with absolute chronological age, but each stage succeeds its precursor in a set order.

They are not stages which can be given a constant chronological date. On the contrary, the ages can vary from one society to another (5).

He explains elsewhere:

The maturation of the nervous system can do no more than determine the totality of possibilities at a given stage. A particular social environment remains indispensable for the realization of these possibilities. It follows that their realization can be accelerated or retarded as a function of cultural and educational conditions (6).

Researchers using Piaget's operational tests with different groups of children have found that all children do not reach the same developmental stage at the same chronological age. For example, there is as much as four years time lag between children in Mar-

tinique and children in France in reaching the same stage (7).

It is often erroneously assumed that students in secondary schools, because of their chronological age, have reached the formal operational stage. However, many secondary school teachers know that a large number of their students do not manifest the cognitive skills characteristic of this stage. Several studies have confirmed this: some college students as well as many secondary school students have not acquired the cognitive skills appropriate to the stage of formal operations which potentially they should be at (8). Many students at the seventh and eighth grades assumed to be at the formal operational stage may still be in a period of transition from the concrete operational to the formal operational stage.

Another observation by Piaget which is often overlooked by teachers is that when a learner is confronted with an unfamiliar or difficult problem he reverts to a previous stage of thinking.

Teachers at all levels of instruction must realize that not all of their students develop all their cognitive potential. Understanding Piaget's developmental stages, the sequence of these stages and the various tasks devised by Piaget to evaluate the students' intellectual stage will help teachers become more effective in sequencing the content to be taught and in planning instructional strategies that will involve and interest a larger number of students.

b) **Listening to Student Errors**

Piaget's '**clinical method**' of exploring intellectual development is ingenuously simple. He listens to his subjects respond as each is given a task, and observes and analyses the correct answers as well as the errors made by them. As Freud has gained insight into the working of the unconscious mind in the affective field by observing the slips of the tongue of his patients, so Piaget has collected valuable information on the working of the conscious mind in the intellectual field by analysing his subjects' errors.

Most teachers are busy correcting their students' errors with little thought as to what an error indicates. Such errors when examined can reveal the students' thinging process, their logic, and their past experiences. They can also provide an excellent source of information about the effectiveness of the strategies used by the teacher. Students' errors are often caused by faulty sequencing of the content, by overdramatization of an application of a concept, by use of words and expressions not in the repertory of the students' language, or by introducing new content with little empathy exercised towards the students' previous experiences and knowledge. Analysis of students' errors can be an effective diagnostic tool for teachers at all levels.

B. **The Role of Language in Teaching and Learning**

Most teachers rely on language as a medium for teaching and consider the students' verbal definition of terminology or verbal explanation of concepts as an indication of the student's understanding of the underlying concepts being taught. Piaget's observations have shown that language is **deceptive** with respect to thought and understanding. He argues that logical thinking is essential for understanding which is primarily non-linguistic. It involves representations such as images and mental symbols, and the internalized actions which he terms '**operations**'.

Language does not constitute the source of logic but is, on the contrary, structured by it. The roots of logic are to be sought in the general coordination of actions (9).

However, he does not underestimate the role of language in the course of intellectual development. He considers language exercises only one of many **semiotic functions** affording us the ability to represent something by a sign or symbol. In addition to language, semiotic functions also include imitation, play, drawing, and mental images. 'The semiotic function makes thought possible by providing it with an unlimited field of application (10)' he emphasises.

Elsewhere Piaget states:



Language can constitute a necessary condition for the completion of logico-mathematical operations without being a sufficient condition for their formation (11).

It is important for teachers to realize that language is deceptive with respect to thought and understanding. Teachers are often misled by the verbal facility of some students into believing that these students comprehend the concept and are capable of handling more advanced concepts than they are actually able to. On the other hand, they are often fooled by the language handicaps of some students into thinking that such students have lower mental ability than they actually possess.

It is also important to remember that during the course of intellectual development, reasoning about **things** (concrete operation) develops prior to reasoning about **verbal propositions** (formal operation).

Such realization may enable the teacher to depend less on verbal explanations and more on providing concrete experiences.

C. Global Exploration: Analysis and Synthesis
Piaget's observations of the way a child **explores** objects have implications at all levels of instruction. 'Perceptual or sensory-motor activity develops noticeably with age'. During the early stages 'the child remains almost passive when confronted with objects he has to identify . . . There is no decentration so that he does not really explore them at all' (12).

Later the child learns to explore the object as a whole, what Piaget terms '**global exploration**'. At a later stage the child analyses specific features. Finally, at the level of genuine operations the child is able to explore the object systematically and with some kind of synthesis.

In order to study an area of knowledge in greater depth, it becomes necessary to isolate it from the main concepts it is related to. For example, considerable time may be devoted to the study of the structure of the cell, to the study of life functions, to the study of leaves, to the study of the sun, in such a way that the pupils remain completely oblivious of the fact that each of these topics are only parts of a whole. We assume that somewhere during their previous experiences, students have learned that a cell is a unit of structure in all living organisms, that a life function is only one of all the other functions of an organism, that a leaf is a part of a whole plant, and that the sun is a part of a universe.

We also assume that the student is capable of integrating the newly acquired knowledge into what he may have been exposed to previously. However most students are not able to perform this task without assistance from the teacher. When the teacher presents the concept in its 'global' aspect first, then takes the part to be analysed and elaborated further (but being sure to constantly refer to its relationship to the whole) the final task of synthesis can become a simple task for students and the whole process of learning becomes more meaningful.

D. Motivation

The importance of motivation for learning is recognized by every teacher. Piaget provides insights into this much discussed topic. He believes in intrinsic motivation, observing that the child actively seeks out new stimulation. Piaget explains motivation in terms of his **equilibration theory**. A state of disequilibrium must exist for the child to be intellectually stimulated. Although the child is seeking out stimulation, he is selective. It is only the type of stimulation which can disequilibrate him which becomes motivational.

Piaget says that objects, ideas, situations or events to catch a child's attention must be 'moderately novel'. The child is not interested in what is 'too familiar', nor can he notice what is 'too new which does not correspond to any of his schemes'. Plays and puzzles, according to Piaget, are excellent sources for disequilibrating the child.

Students can be motivated in school work when teachers become better acquainted with a student's cognitive process and remember the role of surprise and play in stimulating curiosity.

E. Humanistic Education

Although Piaget is best known for his studies on intellectual development, he recognizes the inter-relationship of emotions with intellect. In his foreward to Décarie's book he asserts: 'the inseparability of the affective and cognitive aspects of the assimilatory scheme' (13). The following statement also confirms his view that as emotions colour intellect, emotions are also influenced by the intellect:

All interaction with the environment involves both a structuring and a valuation. We cannot reason, even in pure mathematics, without experiencing certain feelings; and conversely, no effect can exist without a minimum of understanding or discrimination (14).

In the following statement Piaget explains the effect of emotions on the intellectual development:

Affectivity or its privations can certainly be the cause of acceleration or delay in cognitive development . . . but this does not mean that affectivity produces or even modifies the cognitive structures whose necessity remains intrinsic. Actually the affective and cognitive mechanisms always remain indissociable, although distinct; and it goes without saying that if the affective stems from an energetic then the cognitive stems from structures (15).

Some teachers persist in believing that their role is to teach **content** regardless of all other considerations, completely oblivious of the fact that the teaching-learning process at any level is a human interaction activity in which the affective aspect cannot be neglected.

F. The goals of education

The following statement by Piaget states his educational goals:

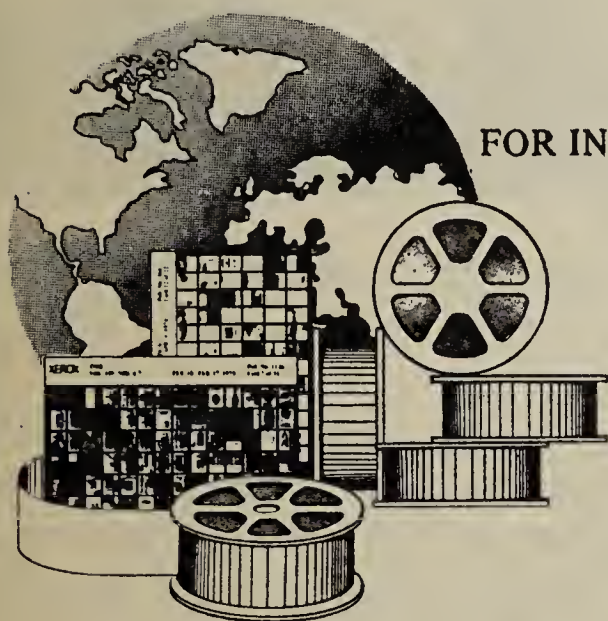
The principal goal of education is to create men who are capable of doing new things, not simply of repeating what other generations have done — men who are creative, inventive, and discoverers. The second goal of education is to form minds which can be critical, can verify, and not accept everything they are offered. The great danger today is of slogans, collective opinions, ready-made trends of thought. We have to be able to resist individually, to criticize, to distinguish between what is proven and what is not. So we need pupils who are active, who learn early to find out by themselves, partly by their own spontaneous activity and partly through material we set up for them; who learn early to tell what is verifiable and what is simply the first idea to come to them (16).

Admittedly, these goals are highly idealistic, yet they do support many of the goals of education embraced by educators for a long time.

To help today's youth grow into adults who can assume the challenge of individual responsibility and survive in an increasing tech-

nological world, we must consciously strive to attain these goals. It is through a society composed of such individuals that we can lift the human race above and beyond the fear, ignorance, brutality, and isolation which exist in today's world. The establishment of freedom, justice and peace for all mankind demands the intellectual as well as the moral and spiritual achievements of each individual.

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Nasrine Adibe obtained an Undergraduate Degree in Biology from the American University of Beirut, and after teaching Science in various schools in the Middle East went to the USA where she obtained an M.A. at Michigan University at Ann Arbor. After an interval spent in teaching Science in inner city US schools she obtained an Ed.D. from the Teachers College of Columbia University in New York.

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Nasrine Adibe is president of the United States section of the WEF.

'AN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM IS ONLY AS GOOD AS THE TEACHERS IN IT.'

Jean Piaget

Laying the Groundwork for Reading

Mary Ann Pulaski, Herricks Public Schools, Long Island, N.Y., U.S.A.

Following on Nasrine Adibe's wideranging introductory article we have Dr Mary Pulaski's Important contribution on the vital topic of learning to read. She shows here, in the light of kindergarten teaching experience, how the child goes through the various Piagetian stages in his efforts to acquire this vital skill, and how the perceptive teacher can apply Piaget's thinking to help the child through his difficulties. She stresses the importance of relating reading to the child's own experience: As she says 'A child cannot really read about something of which he knows nothing'. She concludes her thoughtful review of the relevant Piagetian stages by stressing the step by step process needed in teaching reading. (Readers should consult Dr Adibe's Contributions for the specialised terms in this article they may be unfamiliar with).

Introduction

In this article I should like to discuss how a child comes to learn to read in the light of my own classroom experience and the theories of Jean Piaget. Reading is a way of expressing our language in visual form. **Good** reading teachers start not with Dick and Jane and their ridiculous stilted statements: 'Run Spot run. See Dick run.' but with the child's own words and experiences expressed in printed form. In Sylvia Ashton-Warner's marvellous book, **Teacher** she tells how she taught Maori children in New Zealand to read and write by using their own vocabularies . . . emotionally-loaded words like kiss, cry, drunk, ghost, lollies, and skeleton.

This, then, is my message — that reading, and writing, and the spoken language that precedes them, must arise out of personal experience, out of knowing what the words mean. A child cannot really read about something of which he knows nothing. That is part of why so many ghetto children do poorly in reading — they are dealing with white middle-class experiences which are foreign and meaningless to them. Not all the disadvantaged readers are in the ghettos, either. I once heard of a little boy who could not seem to learn the word 'night'. He came from a well-to-do suburban family but he was asthmatic



and overprotected, and he had never been out after dark. He was put to bed every night in an airconditioned room with the Venetian blinds closed, and he had never seen the moon or the stars. He'd never felt dew on the grass, or experienced the velvety blackness of a summer night. No wonder he couldn't read about it!

Reading and the Piagetian stages

My emphasis on life experience as the basis for reading arises not out of my own educational bias, but has a very substantial rationale in the psychological theories of Jean Piaget. Let me review briefly his theory of intellectual development as it relates to the development of language and reading.

Piaget believes, from his study of young children, that language serves to translate or express in verbal symbols what is already

understood. In other words, the experience, the knowing must come first. The word has no meaning to the child unless he has experience and knowing to which he can attach it. Think of a child's first words. 'Mama', 'kitty', 'daddy', 'ball' . . . single words which may express a world of different meanings. **Ball** may mean 'Where is the ball?' 'That is the ball.' 'Give me the ball.' 'Play ball with me.' 'I can't find my ball.' etc. Watch a baby during the first two years of his life — what Piaget calls the **sensorimotor period**. He comes into the world knowing only that he is wet or cold or hungry, and that some warm, comforting person out there feeds him, changes him, and loves him. It takes maybe a year and a half of many such experiences before the child attaches the word **mama** to this person, to all the experiences and relationships he has had with her. The same experience applies to the other words he first uses. They are all words that represent active knowing through the senses and active motor experimentation . . . climbing, tugging, poking, pushing, falling on ice, rolling in the snow, splashing in the tub. During the first two years of life the child learns to find his way around in a world he didn't know existed when he was a newborn infant. By the time he is a toddler he has emerged from his original egocentrism (in which he was the center of the universe because he was all he knew) to a world in which other objects and people have a permanent place. Toys do not disappear because he drops them . . . they are still down there somewhere, and he looks for them or calls for them. Mother is not gone forever when she leaves him for an evening because he has had many reassuring experiences of her return, and he knows he can count on her to show up. The emotional side of this is what Erikson calls 'basic trust': the cognitive aspect is what Piaget calls 'object constancy' — the major achievement of the sensorimotor period.

The importance of symbols

As the toddler emerges into what Piaget calls the **preoperational stage** and we call the pre-school stage, he is beginning to use symbols in a variety of ways. He loves pictures of familiar things, and later he loves to make his own pictures. Picture reading is a very good

way of starting children to read. Ask a 1st grade child to tell you about the picture he has just drawn. You can scribble a few notes on the back, and after school you can print them on a story strip which is pasted underneath the picture. The next morning you can ask the child to 'read' or tell his story to the class. You can do this for five or six stories every day, and hang the pictures on easels or bulletin boards so children can look back at them, or copy words from other children's stories. As the pictures get smaller and the stories get longer, they can be bound into books with construction paper covers. These should be the child's first preprimers — the stories out of his own experience in his own language.

A story

I should like to tell a story about a little boy who came to school in May to register for Kindergarten the next fall. Usually our Kindergarten teachers line the children up in the hall and take them down to visit the Kindergarten rooms while the mothers talk with the principal and me. Well, on this day I heard such screaming and howling in the hall that I left the mothers' group and went out to see what was wrong. Here was this little boy, absolutely terrified, hanging back and refusing to join the other children. I took him by the hand and led him outdoors until he had calmed down enough to tell me why he was so upset. 'I can't come to school,' he said, 'I can't read!' I took him over to the kindergarten wing where we could see into the rooms through big glass windows. There were stacks of coloured construction paper piled up against the window, so I asked him to tell me the colours. 'That's reading,' I said when he finished. 'You read those colours beautifully!' Then I asked him to look at a big picture on the wall and tell me all about it. This he did, in good, articulate detail. 'What do you mean, you can't read?' I said. 'You read that picture very well, and didn't leave out anything!' Ever since then — and he's now in second grade — when I come into his classroom he rushes over to me with a rapturous face and says, 'You were right — I **can** read! Look what I'm reading now.'

Getting back to Piaget's stages, the major task of the pre-operational or preschool years is to find constancy in an 'ever-changing world, the kind of logical constancy upon which thought or operations are built. Operations, for Piaget, mean activity in the brain instead of in the body. Thus instead of touching, tasting, feeling and exploring real objects all the time as the toddler did, the preschool child can symbolize them in pictures, in dreams, in words, and in make-believe play. A little boy who uses a stick to symbolize a gun is representing in his play a whole wealth of experiences and knowledge he has about guns — you hold them a certain way, you sight and pull the trigger, they go bang-bang, and somebody drops dead. There is no real trigger, no real sound — all this is imaginary activity going on in the child's head which he represents with a symbol, his stick. The same is true of word symbols, except that here we often think the child understands because he latches onto the symbols without enough experience to know what they mean. I read about a 5-year old boy who came to his psychiatrist, very upset because his family was going on a vacation and he was going to 'fly to Yurp.' He had seen birds fly and kites fly, and he had a very simple sensory-motor concept of flying, and he just knew he was never going to make it all the way across the ocean to 'Yurp.' Another little boy whose father was a lawyer came home from kindergarten the first day and said, 'Do I have to go to school tomorrow?' His mother said, 'Of course; why not?' He said, 'Well, I went to school today. You said I had to go to school to be a lawyer, and I went. Why do I have to go again?'

The egocentric thinking of children

These examples show how children can use the language and get around in the world, but are still thinking in a very egocentric way, based on limited experience. When you tell a child to put his name on the top of the paper, he may put it right across the sheet. For him, top is the front side, like the top of his desk. His knowledge is limited to the most obvious perception of things around him. He needs many experiences of putting things in order, classifying things, weighing, measuring, and counting things, to understand the

logical relationships that underlie perceptual differences. What is big and what is little? In relation to what? And how come Daddy looks so big when he stands over you, and so small when he's disappearing down the hill? This is what I mean by perceptual constancy. Just as the baby had to learn object constancy, the preschool child's major intellectual task is to learn that things are essentially the same despite changes (or transformations, to use Piaget's term) in their perceived difference. Daddy-down-the-street is tiny, but if you watch him as he comes, you will see that he is still your 6-foot Daddy. A ball of clay rolled out into a long thin sausage is still the same amount of clay, even though it looks like more because it is much longer. 6 buttons in a row close together are the same as 6 buttons in two spread-out rows, despite the fact that two rows look like more than one. These are Piaget's famous conservation experiments which he used to show how young children below the age of 7 depend on the most compelling aspect of an object's appearance to make judgments about it; in other words, they are relying on perception rather than logic. To supply the groundwork for logical thinking, which characterizes the next stage of the school-age or '**concrete operational**' child, there must be a wide variety of experiences in transforming materials from one perceptual appearance to another. These experiences give meaning and enrichment to the language, spoken or read. The child must do the transforming himself, feeling it in his bones and muscles and fingertips, to really understand it. Piaget says you can't teach children to swim by lining them up in a row beside the pool to watch the instructor in the water. They must get in and thrash around in the water themselves to get the feel of it.

Conclusion

This is what I mean by laying the groundwork for reading. First comes the experience, the direct personal knowledge; then come the words or spoken symbols to describe that experience, and finally come the printed symbols to represent the words which represent the experience. It's like the house that Jack built; every step is necessary and must be sufficient to give rise to the next one. It is true that

children do use words they don't understand, and can sound out words they don't recognize — but this is meaningless, what Piaget calls 'deformed learning.' We don't want our children to read and write by rote memory, the way a dog does tricks. We want him to understand, to grasp with joy the familiar experiences which we are teaching him to express in a new form. Therefore I appeal to all parents and teachers concerned with young children that you bring your children to reading with a full understanding of how children develop on your part, and a full participation in the experiences read about on theirs. Then, and only then, will your children discover the real joy of reading.



Irvin Simon

Mary Ann Spencer Pulaski graduated from Wellesley College, and after her marriage worked variously as a copywriter, in real estate, and as a teacher while raising her two children. Then she returned to study, and got her Ph.D. in psychology from the City University of New York in 1968. She has lectured extensively on child development and is now a school psychologist with the Herricks Public Schools on Long Island, New York, and is the author of **Understanding Piaget**, Harper & Row (1971).

TERMINOLOGY OF PIAGETIAN CONCEPTS

MARY ANN PULASKI

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Taken from her book **Understanding Piaget** (Harper and Row, N.Y., 1971) with acknowledgements.

PART I: A-I

Adaptation. A biological mode of functioning which characterizes all forms and levels of life. It consists of the dual processes of assimilation and accommodation, which go on continuously.

Assimilation is the process of taking in from the environment all forms of stimulation and information, which are then digested and reintegrated into the organism's existing forms or structures.

Accommodation is the process of reaching out and adjusting to new and changing conditions in the environment, so that pre-existing patterns of behavior are modified to cope with new information or situations.

Affect. The emotional aspect of behavior which includes feelings, motivation, interest and values.

Cognition. Refers to all the intellectual activities of the mind, such as thinking, knowing, remembering, perceiving, recognizing, or generalizing.

Concrete Operations. See Operations.

Conservation. The ability to understand that objects or quantities are 'conserved' and remain constant despite changes in their appearance (e.g., one cup of milk is the same amount whether poured into a tall, thin glass or a wide, shallow bowl).

Decentration. The secondary and continuing aspect of perceptual activity, by means of which errors or distortions of perception are corrected. Perception focuses first upon the most compelling aspect of a stimulus to the exclusion of others; decentration, or focusing on secondary aspects and incorporating them into the total percept, leads to modified and more accurate perception.

Egocentrism. Lack of awareness of anything outside the realm of one's immediate experience. It is evidenced most clearly in infants, who are unaware even of their own hands and feet as being parts of their bodies and do not realize that objects exist when they can no longer be seen. Egocentric thinking persists throughout childhood, as shown by the child's unawareness of points of view other than his own, and his projection of his own wishes, fears, and desires onto the world around him.

Equilibration. The process of regulating assimilation and accommodation in order to maintain a state of internal balance or **equilibrium**. This protects the organism from being overwhelmed with new and incomprehensible information which it has not assimilated and also from overreaching itself in the attempt to accommodate to a too rapidly changing environment. (See Adaptation.)

Experience. Used by Piaget to refer to the physical and empirical experiences of children which contribute to their knowledge of the world through their senses and their muscles.

Formal Operations. See Operations.

Genetic Epistemology. The developmental study of the nature of knowledge; how it begins and how it develops.

Groupings. Organized structures of thought which are reversible and logical in the sense that every element is related to every other element. They include the logic of classes and relations and are characteristic of the period of concrete operations.

PART 2: I—Z Continued on p.109

Some key Piagetian Concepts of Intellectual Development

Nasrine Adibe, C.W. Post Center, Long Island University, New York, U.S.A.

In this short article Nasrine Adibe, who has contributed the article on page 80 and the annotated Piaget bibliography on page 110 discusses the central issues of intellectual development in the light of some key Piagetian concepts. She begins by explaining the key terms schema, assimilation, accommodation and equilibrium in terms of which Professor Piaget explains intellectual development. In the second part of her article she describes the by now classic stages of intellectual development, as elucidated by Professor Piaget, namely, the sensory-motor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational periods. She concludes her informative article, which should be of great help to readers unfamiliar with Piagetian terms, by enumerating the four factors of maturation, physical experience, social interaction, and equilibration which influence development from one stage to the next. Readers are also referred to Dr May Ann Pulaski's terminology of Piagetian concepts on pages 89 and 109.

I — The Process of Intellectual Development Introduction

Piaget is, perhaps, the foremost child psychologist of this century. The basic premise of his theory is that cognitive acts are acts of organization and adaptation to the perceived environment. That is, intellectual activity is part of the process by which a person adapts to his environment and organizes his experience. These are not viewed as separate processes.

To understand the processes of intellectual organization and adaptation as viewed by Piaget, four basic concepts should be reviewed:

1) Schema

These are the psychological structures within a person that adapt and change with mental development. They can be thought of as a mental index file which is used to process and identify incoming stimuli. As the child develops they become more differentiated. They never stop changing or becoming more refined.

2) & 3) Assimilation and accommodation

These are the two complementary processes

which are responsible for changing the schema. Through assimilation the individual tends to integrate new stimuli according to existing cognitive structures (schema). Through accommodation the individual tends to change his cognitive structures in response to environmental demands.

Assimilation is, therefore, a part of the process by which the individual adapts to and organizes the environment. It allows for growth of schema, but not change or development.

Accommodation is what accounts for change of our psychological structures. When we are faced with a new stimulus we try to assimilate but sometimes it just won't fit. When this happens we try to modify the existing schema to accept the stimulus or create a new schema. Either action is a form of accommodation and results in a change (development) of our cognitive structures (schema).

Once accommodation has taken place, the child tries again to assimilate the stimulus. Since the structure has changed, the stimulus is readily assimilated. Assimilation is always the end product that the child actively seeks.

4) Equilibrium

Cognitive development depends on both processes taking place in a state of equilibrium. If a person only assimilated he would be unable to differentiate things and, conversely, total accommodation would leave a person unable to detect similarities.

A child facing a new stimulus tries to assimilate it into his existing schema. If successful, equilibrium is reached. If the stimulus cannot be assimilated, accommodation and then assimilation and equilibrium are reached in that order.

This pattern, Piaget feels, continues itself at all levels of development, from birth through adulthood. As one grows to maturity,

many experiences are at odds with previous learning (i.e. with existing schema). Now either he must adjust these existing structures to the new experience as he perceives it (that is, he must accommodate himself to it) or he must adjust the new perception to fit his existing structures (that is, he must distort it in order to assimilate it) or he must do both. To the extent that he is successful in achieving an adjustment through cognitive reorganization, he attains the sought-after equilibrium and is ready for another step in his cognitive development.

Piaget's theory clearly suggests that cognitive development follows a fixed course wherein the child moves progressively through four stages. This path is the same for **all** people. All must move forward successfully and in unvarying sequential order if they are to achieve their potential cognitive abilities.

II — The Stages of Development

These four definitive stages of development are summarized as follows:

A — Sensory-Motor Period

(birth to approximately 18 months)

During this period — roughly 18 months — the infant moves from a reflex level of response to a level of organized sensory-motor interactions with the environment. It is a time of basic adjustment between the infant and his world — a coming to terms with the most rudimentary aspects of reality through sensory-motor exploration. The infant learns, for example, that objects exist even though he cannot see them and that he and such objects are differentiated realities. His achievements during this period are the foundation for all his future cognitive development and activity.

B — Preoperational Period

(approximate ages 2-7)

Whereas the sensory-motor period is characterized by preverbal, non-representational knowledge, the preoperational period is ushered in by the first crude attempts at symbolization. It is the time of accelerated language development, and though his limited experience and maturation restrict his thinking, the preoperational child is freed from the

restraint of simple motoric functioning. In addition to language development, it is a time of increasing social development.

Yet, notwithstanding the notable achievements of the child during this period, he still attempts to attend simultaneously to several aspects of an event. Also, his thinking is said to be egocentric. He is able to deal only with his own viewpoint and in fact appears to assume that there are no other viewpoints.

C — Period of Concrete Operations

(approximate ages 7-11)

In this period the child becomes capable of logical thought processes that can be applied to concrete problems. He is able to handle problems of transformation in which he coordinates and understands the relationship among the successive steps in a logical sequence. He is also capable of reversible thought and can follow a line of reasoning back to its beginning point. He is able to conserve matter in his thinking. That is, he is able to recognize that the quantity of matter remains constant regardless of changes in its shape or position. He is able to deal with concepts of time, space, causality, classification, and seriation (arranging objects in serial order according to some characteristic such as size).

But the child during this period can use logic to solve problems involving real objects or events only; he is not yet ready to apply logic to hypothetical or purely verbal problems. When we remember that this period roughly parallels the elementary school years, we can see the tremendous significance of this proposition.

D — The Period of Formal Operations

(approximate ages 11-15)

By the end of this period, the adolescent has achieved the final stages in the development of his cognitive structures. He is now capable of mature thought processes and is potentially able to handle all classes of problems. He can deal with hypothetical problems and propositional logic, and he can detect logical incongruities in hypothetical contexts. While he will, of course, continue to learn, there are no further fundamental qualitative changes in cognitive function to be achieved.

Applying the Piagetian Stages of Maturation to the Care of the Mentally Retarded

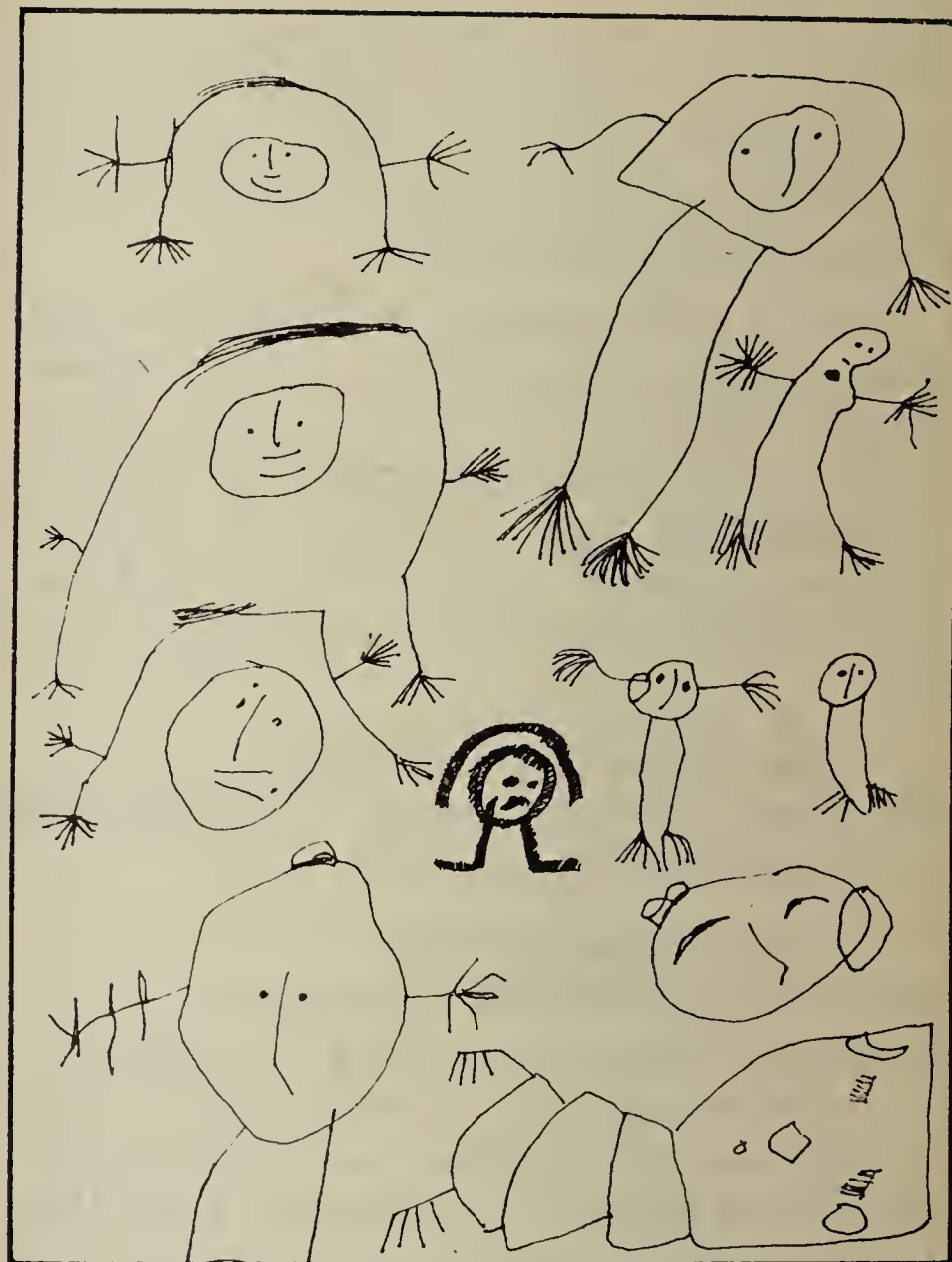
Mabel McNicols, Suffolk Development Center, New York, USA

Leading on from Dr Mary Pulaski's discussion of the teaching of reading in the light of Piaget's theories of child development, this article by Mabel McNicols discusses how the Piagetian stages of development can be used in helping mentally retarded children to develop. While critical of the blanket application of Intelligence tests such as the Stanford Binet, she argues that they can provide a valuable clue to the development of mentally retarded children, provided each child is viewed as a unique individual. In particular, such quantitative tests of mental ability can show the clinician aware of Piaget's stages of development whether the child has passed beyond the simple perceptual stage. She goes on to discuss the development of moral judgement in the child and warns how the mutual co-operation stage which this corresponds to in Piagetian theory can be regressed from if there is no understanding and constructive learning environment supplied to the child.

Introduction

Piaget is interested in how intellectual capabilities, particularly logical thinking, develops in individuals, and how knowledge, particularly mathematical knowledge, has developed through our history. My surprise has been that more of his findings have not been utilized or implemented in the care of the mentally retarded since his findings are pertinent to the field. Understanding Piaget by all those who care for the mentally retarded will help them gain greater insight into the inner workings of the minds of their subjects which in turn would help them to have realistic expectations in aiding their subjects attain his or her optimum capabilities.

While mental measurement features large in our educational system and a great emphasis has been placed on this quantitative assessment of mental ability, there has been an increasing disillusionment with purely quantitative measures of intellectual development — that is, intelligence tests yielding an I.Q. which we go by, without heeding other aspects of mental level or ability.



From *Education Through Art* — Herbert Read

Piaget's tests are 'open-ended' tests which allow us to see that the child does not see or interpret the world, which we as adults take for granted. The methods Piaget has used to explore intellectual development are ingeniously simple. One of his methods is to listen carefully to his subjects and study their correct explanations as well as their errors. Through analysis of the mistakes and the absurd sayings of children, he has collected valuable information about their thinking processes. It is from minute observations of hundreds of subjects that Piaget has formulated his theory of cognitive development. The process and progress whereby learning takes place is of greater diagnostic value and in turn — of greater value in helping the child to progress to further learning or in Piaget terminology to proceed to the next develop-

mental stage.

Timing of instruction

The appropriate timing of instruction given to the mentally retarded and the expectation of the outcome of this instruction must coincide or be with the maturational level of the individual retarded child. It has been found that in teaching a concept to a child who does not have the mental structure which is necessary for its assimilation, the child learns only superficially. However, when the child is led to progress at his own pace to the developmental level at which he is able to construct the necessary cognitive structure — or using Piaget's term the **schemas**, learning and understanding take place. Just as with children of average or superior intelligence, psychologists and teachers must be alert to the mentally retarded child's current level of functioning. Thus, each child must be viewed as a unique individual rather than viewed as one of the group of mentally retarded who reach the maturational stage at a later time. Intensive training in activities which the child is capable of accomplishing is of greater benefit than the endless and non-productive instruction which I have seen given to a child who has not reached the operational development of thought processes which a particular activity requires.

We have lost confidence in intelligence tests as a valid assessment for the intellectual capabilities of an individual. Yet the Stanford-Binet does include a number of questions that assess the individual's level of logical thinking. After all, Piaget did work with Binet in developing the original test.

For example, at Year III-6 Subtest No. 1, a card with a large and a small sphere pictured on it, is shown to the child and he is asked 'Which ball is bigger? Put your finger on the big one.' Three trials are given, alternating the relative position of the large and the small balls.

Also at that same age level an alternate sub-test — comparison of sticks. Two match sticks, one of 2 inch and one of $2\frac{1}{2}$ inch lengths, are placed on one table before the

child in varied positions and the question posed 'Which stick is longer? Put your finger on the long one.'

These two tests require the subject to overcome his immediate perceptual impression in order to give the correct answer. When he cannot answer correctly, one can assume that the child is still at the perceptual stage and will need experiences that will lead him to attain the second stage of development. Yet another example of questions that give an insight into the subject's level according to Piaget's levels of moral judgment is a Year VII subtest No. 4 — comprehension. Question (b) 'What's the thing for you to do when you have broken something that belongs to someone else, and (e) 'What's the thing for you to do if another boy (or girl) hits you without meaning to do it?'

The development of moral judgement

Let me explain in brief the development of moral judgement. The moral judgement of the child proceeds from an attitude which Piaget calls 'the morality of constraint', in which respect for rules is based upon adult categorical external rules, to the morality of cooperation, in which respect for rules is based upon mutual consent and cooperation.

A child's sense of justice in punishment proceeds from the concept of retribution — where punishment is the necessary retribution for disobedience, to the idea of punishment be reciprocity — an eye for an eye type of punishment, to a morality of mutual respect, cooperation, and understanding which stresses fairness, justice, and consideration for others.

Here are some responses to the question 'What's the thing for you to do when you have broken something that belongs to someone else?' Subject (1) MA 6-4 'Clean it up. Say I'm sorry.'

The fact that the child apologized reflects a sense of fairness, cooperation, and consideration for others.

Subject (2) MA 7-2 and Subject (3) MA 8-8

both replied 'Pay for it' and Subject (4) MA 7-6 'Buy a new one.' — all with higher MA than the first subject but no sense of mutual respect and cooperation.

Subject (5) MA 6-6 replied 'Say you are sorry.' However, 22 months prior (MA 6-4) when he was tested, he said 'Mother will send me to bed.' At this point he was on a more regressed stage, still on the moral level of constraint where he expected punishment from the parent, the higher power who is expected to mete out punishment for the transgression of rules which are regarded as sacred and unchangeable since they are created by the authority (parent, God, etc.). Children feel that rules are made for children by adults and are considered as final and inviolable.

Here are some responses to the question 'What's the thing for you to do if another boy (girl) hits you without meaning to do it?'

The answers: Subject (1) MA 6-4 'Tell somebody.'

Subject (2) MA 7-2 'Tell her mother.'

Subject (3) MA 8-8 'Hit her back' — punishment without taking into consideration the intent of the other person.

Subject (4) MA 7-6 'Say "Don't do it again".' — approaches stage of cooperation.

Subject (5) MA 6-6 'Hit back and call attendant.' However, this same subject 22 months prior (MA 6-4) responded 'He would say "Sorry" and I'd say "That's o.k".' It appears that this individual had reached the stage of mutual cooperation. But what happened or didn't happen to this individual to cause him to regress? For one thing, the environment had changed. He had contact with more aggressive residents in the institution and there was no constructive learning situation or experience offered to him or his fellow residents.

The danger of regression

When a child is confronted with a situation which is too difficult or unfamiliar, he tends to

regress to a lower level and answer at that level. The child had regressed to the stage of egocentrism in which there is a confusion of the ego and the external world and therefore a lack of cooperation. The child cannot cooperate when he is unable to dissociate his ego from the input from the physical and social world. His ego must be developed in order for him to situate himself more or less objectively in an environment and make judgments of his own, regardless of the thought and will of others. The dominance of the value judgments of the adult or older child is inseparable from the unconscious egocentrism of the very young child.

Mabel McNicols took an Undergraduate Degree in Psychology from Bucknall University, and later an MA in Clinical Psychology from New York University. After graduation she took up an intern post at the Bellview Hospital, New York as a specialist in psychopathology.

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Piaget on Memory: The Case for Constructivism and its Educational Implications

Joan R. Tamburrini, Froebel College, Roehampton Institution of Higher Education, London, England

In this profound and important article Joan Tamburrini discusses in depth Piaget's constructivist theory of the role of memory in the acquisition of knowledge and its implications for both teaching methods and the training of teachers. She points out how according to empiricism, which was first enunciated by Locke in the 17th century and is now an integral part of our intellectual heritage, knowledge is acquired by a passive copying of reality, reflected in didactic teaching methods. According to Piaget's constructivist approach however knowledge consists of both figurative and operative aspects. Figurative knowledge is concerned with static, observable qualities, operative knowledge with relationships. Schoolwork has both aspects of knowledge. Piaget's theory of memory is, it is argued, of the greatest importance in explaining the acquisition of not only operative knowledge, but also figurative knowledge. Piaget and Inhelder's famous seriation experiments with matchsticks backed up by subsequent experiments by Aitken on memory improvement have, argues Joan Tamburrini, provided conclusive empirical evidence that memory is not the copying process which empiricism suggests. Memory, contends Piaget, is reconstructive rather than reproductive, and the seriation experiments prove that memory can be improved in terms of a memory code constructed by the learner in terms of his action. The threefold significance of this important Piagetian concept is then explained. The final part of the article concerns itself with the implications of this theory of knowledge acquisition in the classroom. As Joan Tamburrini stresses, empiricism has profoundly influenced teaching methods, notably traditional didactic methods with their emphasis on rote learning, uniformity, and the formal organisation of the curriculum. Even 'laissez faire' informal teaching methods are influenced by the empiricist approach she argues, and pleas for a more 'open' teaching style where both teachers and learners make a high contribution to the learning process. She concludes her article, which has wide implications for teaching and learning at all levels, by describing the three interrelating functions of a constructivist teaching style, and with the plea that these and other results of modern educational research be brought to the attention of practising teachers by inservice training and retraining.

Introduction

Teachers' assumptions about the nature of psychological processes are inevitably reflected

in their classroom practices. It is obvious, for example, that a teacher who conceives of intelligence as predetermined and, therefore, fixed will organize his pupils and his curriculum differently from one who believes intelligence is largely environmentally determined and, therefore, plastic. Perhaps rather less obvious are differences in curriculum content and in teaching style that spring from empiricism and constructivism, two contrasting conceptions of how knowledge is acquired.

Empiricism versus constructivism

Empiricist conceptions of knowledge take different forms in modern psychology, some more refined than others, but Piaget claims that common to them all are two characteristics. Firstly the acquisition of knowledge is conceived of as a process which involves copying reality.

If we look for common factors in these diverse approaches (of empiricism) we find a central idea: the function of cognitive mechanisms is to submit to reality, copying its features as closely as possible, so that they may produce a reproduction which differs as little as possible from external reality. This idea of empiricism implies that reality can be reduced to its observable features and that knowledge must limit itself to transcribing these features. (Piaget and Inhelder, 1976). (1)

Secondly, empiricists implicitly attribute passivity to the knower, for to envisage that knowledge copies reality is essentially to conceive of it as a unidirectional process in which reality impinges with data on a mind that passively receives and records them.

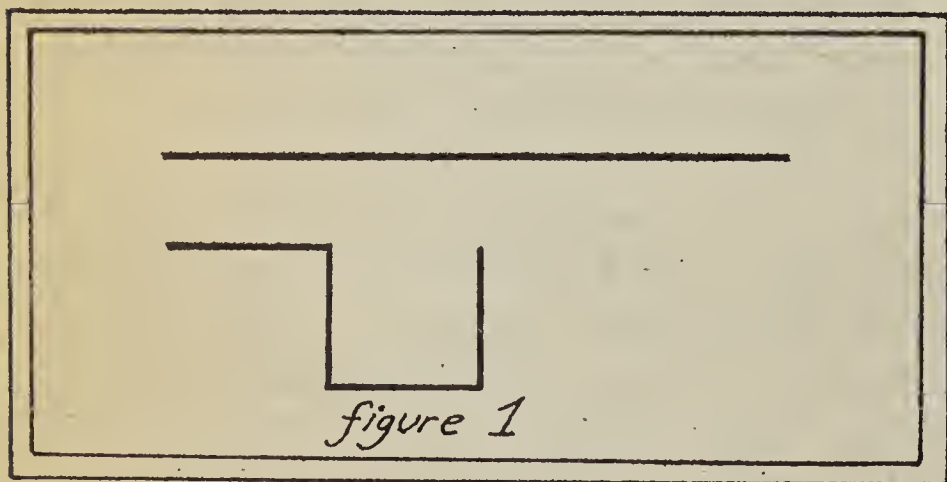
Piaget rejects the empiricist view of knowledge and claims that it is the result of a pro-

cess of construction. What the knower understands of external reality is, according to Piaget, never a copy of data received, but is modulated and transformed in terms of what he already knows and understands, or in Piaget's terminology in terms of his schemes.

Piaget and Inhelder's experiments on memory

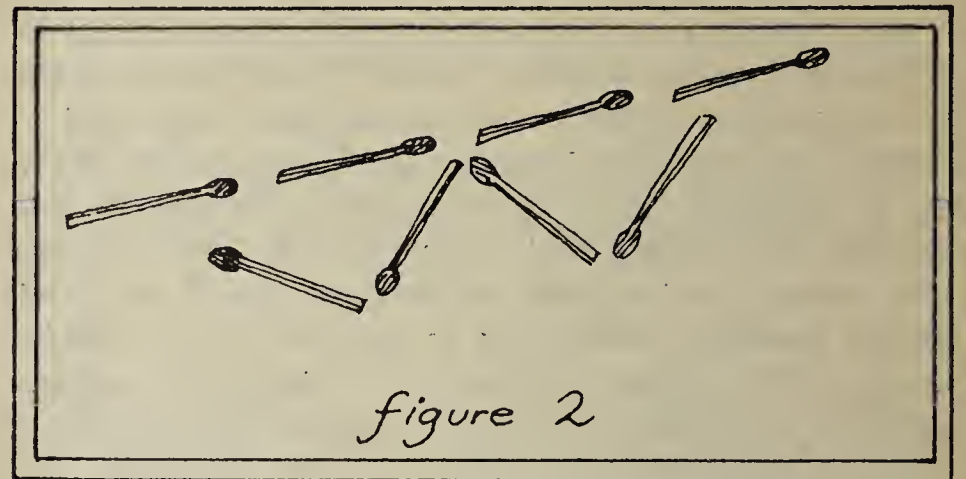
The most convincing empirical support for Piaget's constructivist account of knowledge comes from his investigations of memory. In order to understand these investigations it is first necessary to understand his distinction between figurative and operative knowing. Figurative knowledge has to do with static aspects of reality, with observable characteristics and configurations. Operative knowledge has to do with relationships within things and between things, with relationships that are non-observable. Much of the knowledge we expect children to acquire in school has both figurative and operative aspects. The geography and science curricula, for example, involve properties of the physical world which are observable but organised through concepts of time, space, number and causality which are not directly observable. It is Piaget's contention that not even these figurative aspects are acquired as a result of a copying process, since an understanding of them also requires that the knower has structured the relevant underlying operative knowledge.

In one of their experiments on memory Piaget and Inhelder (1973) (2) showed children between the ages of five and seven years the configuration in figure 1. After one hour

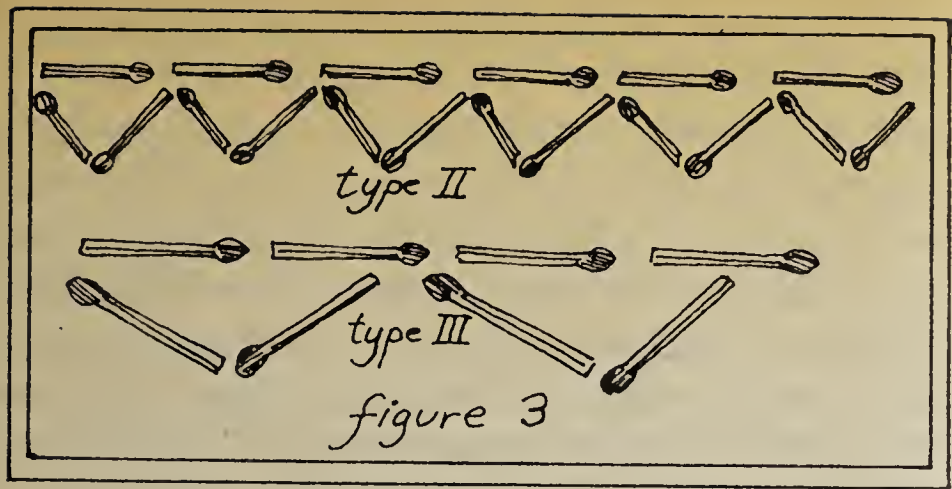


and again after one week the children were seen. Only the youngest children had any difficulty with this task. Most of the other children

asked to draw from memory what they had were able to produce a fairly accurate drawing of what they had seen. This is a configuration, however, for which figurative knowing is adequate. By contrast children produce interesting deformations when they are asked to reproduce from memory the configuration in figure 2. The main difference between the

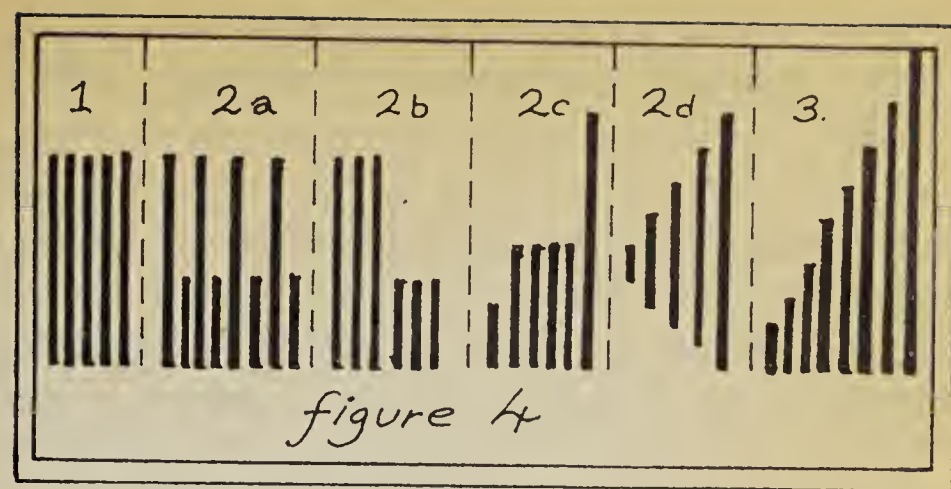


two configurations is that the lines in figure 1 are continuous whereas figure 2 is made up of discrete elements (matchsticks). The latter configuration, therefore, involves numerical and spatial correspondences. Piaget and Inhelder presented the latter configuration as a memory task to children between the ages of five and eight years requiring them to draw it from memory one hour and six months after its presentation. There are inevitably some children within this age range for whom this configuration presents a kind of conceptual conflict. It is known that children achieve understanding of conservation of number before they acquire the concept of conservation of length. Children at this stage, therefore, will conceive the two rows of matchsticks to be equal with respect to number but unequal with respect to length, for they conceive that equality of length requires that the ends are coterminous. Thus, because 'they assimilate the (configuration) . . . to two schemata at one (one numerical and the other spatial) these children find themselves in a systematic quandary.' The reproductions of children between the ages of five to six years bear witness to the quandary, for instead of drawing a faithful copy of the configuration, as on the whole the older children do, they produce an illusory solution of the conflict by making the ends of the two rows coterminous as in both type II and type III solutions shown in figure 3. The results indicate that 'memory retention is



dominated by a tendency to eliminate the conflict between numerical conservation and the coincidence of the spatial boundaries rather than by a tendency to copy the model'. In other words, although the array of matchsticks is a static model, what children reproduce corresponds not to the perceptible or figurative aspects of the model but to their understanding of its covert numerical and spatial aspects.

An even more remarkable result was obtained when children's memory was investigated in the same way with respect to a configuration of ten sticks ranging from 9 to 15cm. in length arranged in a series from the shortest to the longest. The children, aged 3 to 8 years, were told to look carefully at the sticks so that they could remember them later. After a week and again after six months the children were asked to draw from memory what they had seen. As in the experiments already described there was no new presentation of the model. After they had completed their memory drawings the children were given sticks to make a series so that their levels of conceptual development with respect to seriation could be ascertained and so that the relationship between their conceptual levels and their memory drawings could be examined. The children's memory drawings showed varying levels of organisation, examples of which are shown in figure 4. The youngest children, mostly 3 to 4 years of age, drew a number of sticks of more or less equal length, (1). Children of 4 to 5 years of age drew one of the configurations shown as 2a, b and c. From about 5 years of age children generally drew a correct seriation but with only a few elements and often with the bases not aligned horizontally, (2d). On the



whole the oldest children drew correct seriated configurations.

Seriation schemes and the memory code

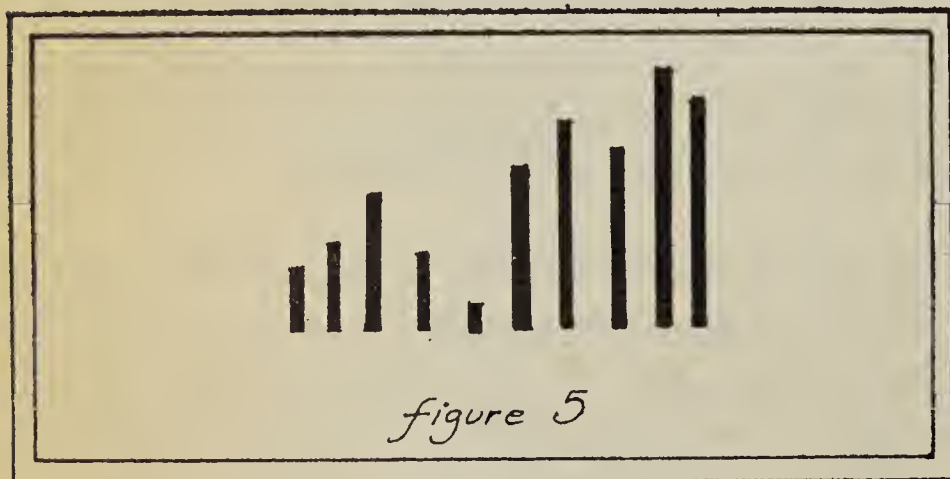
The drawings proved to be similar to what the children did when asked to make a series with sticks. This alone would suggest some support for the hypotheses that memory is reconstructive rather than reproductive and that what a child reconstructs in memory is related to his schemes. But the results of requiring the children to reproduce the model from memory a second time after a lapse of six months support these hypotheses in an even more remarkable way. The reproductions of 74% of the children showed progress compared with their earlier drawings made one week after the presentation of the model. This progress always involved a move to the next sub-stage. Piaget and Inhelder suggest that over the six months interval the children's schemes with respect to seriation have evolved through their experiences and actions to higher levels. The seriation schemes provide the code for memorising and during the six months period the modified scheme is used as a new code for the next memory evocation. Thus the memory code undergoes constant changes matching and determined by the corresponding schemes.

Such a restructuring of the code takes place in close dependence on the schemes of intelligence. The clearest indication of this is the observation of different types of memory organisation in accordance with the age level of a child so that a longer interval of retention without any new presentation, far from causing a deterioration of memory, may actually improve it. In fact, such progress is due to and makes evident

the general progress of intelligence during the interval concerned (Inhelder, 1969) (3).

Altemeyer's memory improvement experiments

There have been several attempts reported by Modgil and Modgil (1976) (4) to replicate Piaget's findings on memory particularly in relation to the seriation task just described. Many of these studies have substantiated the long-term memory 'improvement' reported by Piaget. However, some of these investigators have interpreted the results differently from Piaget. Altemeyer et alia (1969) (5), for example, have argued that there is a developmental tendency to seriate any drawing which involves an array which could be seriated and that this does not necessarily involve a recall of the original stimulus. In an investigation designed to test this hypothesis Altemeyer et alia presented a serial configuration of ten rods of different lengths similar to that used by Piaget and Inhelder to sixty-five children aged five to six years. A comparison between the children's drawings one week and six months after the presentation showed that 43% of the children's second reproductions were more serially ordered than their first ones, thus supporting Piaget's findings by showing an 'improvement'. A control group of twenty-nine children were given a slightly different task. They were presented with a scrambled series as in figure 5. The second reproductions of 41% of these children were



more serially ordered than their first ones and less like the scrambled series of the model. Thus their second reproductions were not an improvement in the sense of being closer to

an accurate reproduction of the original display. While these results could be said to support Altemeyer's hypothesis, one could also interpret them as reflecting a rationalisation of the original configuration resulting from a development of conceptual understanding. It is as though the child has conceptualized the array as 'capable of being seriated'. His reproduction is more conceptually than figuratively accurate. The results of Altemeyer's investigation support rather than refute Piaget's contention that memory is not the copying process which a naive empiricism supposes.

The acquisition of operative knowledge: Piaget's concept of action

Piaget maintains that the acquisition of operative knowledge is not a result of reproducing reality but is constructed by the knower through action. The concept of 'action' in Piaget's theory is complex and has three major connotations. Firstly, Piaget suggests that the logicomathematical operations whose development he has investigated are acquired as a result of abstracting from the results of one's actions on objects as distinct from abstracting from the perceived properties of objects, as is the case with concepts belonging to physics. Thus, for example, the concept of conservation of numerical quantity is achieved, Piaget maintains, through carrying out sorting and arranging activities with objects from which it is gradually abstracted that a numerical quantity is not changed by a configurational transformation.

Secondly, Piaget's notion of action involves an interactionist conception in contrast to the empiricist conception of the knower as passive.

The object is known only so far as the subject achieves action on it, and this action is incompatible with the passive character which empiricism, at various degrees, attributes to knowledge. (Piaget, 1974) (6).

Thirdly, Piaget's notion of action is not synonymous with physical activity. Cognitive development requires both physical manipulation and reflection upon action.

Empiricism and didactic teaching

An empiricist conception of the acquisition of knowledge is often the basis of didactic teaching. For if knowledge is thought to be acquired as a copying process then visual demonstrations and verbal presentations by the teacher of the facts and concepts the pupils are required to learn would seem to be the most effective way of teaching them. Of course, one must be careful not to oversimplify. No teacher supposes that a particular visual demonstration or verbal presentation will be equally effective with all pupils. Only a modicum of teaching experience makes it evident that some pupils do not have an adequate conceptual grasp to acquire certain presentations with understanding. Faced with this fact of school life teachers then sometimes argue that pupils can catch up. In order to avoid setting up the complex individualized and diversified curricula that would be required to cater for differing levels of conceptual understanding, some material, such

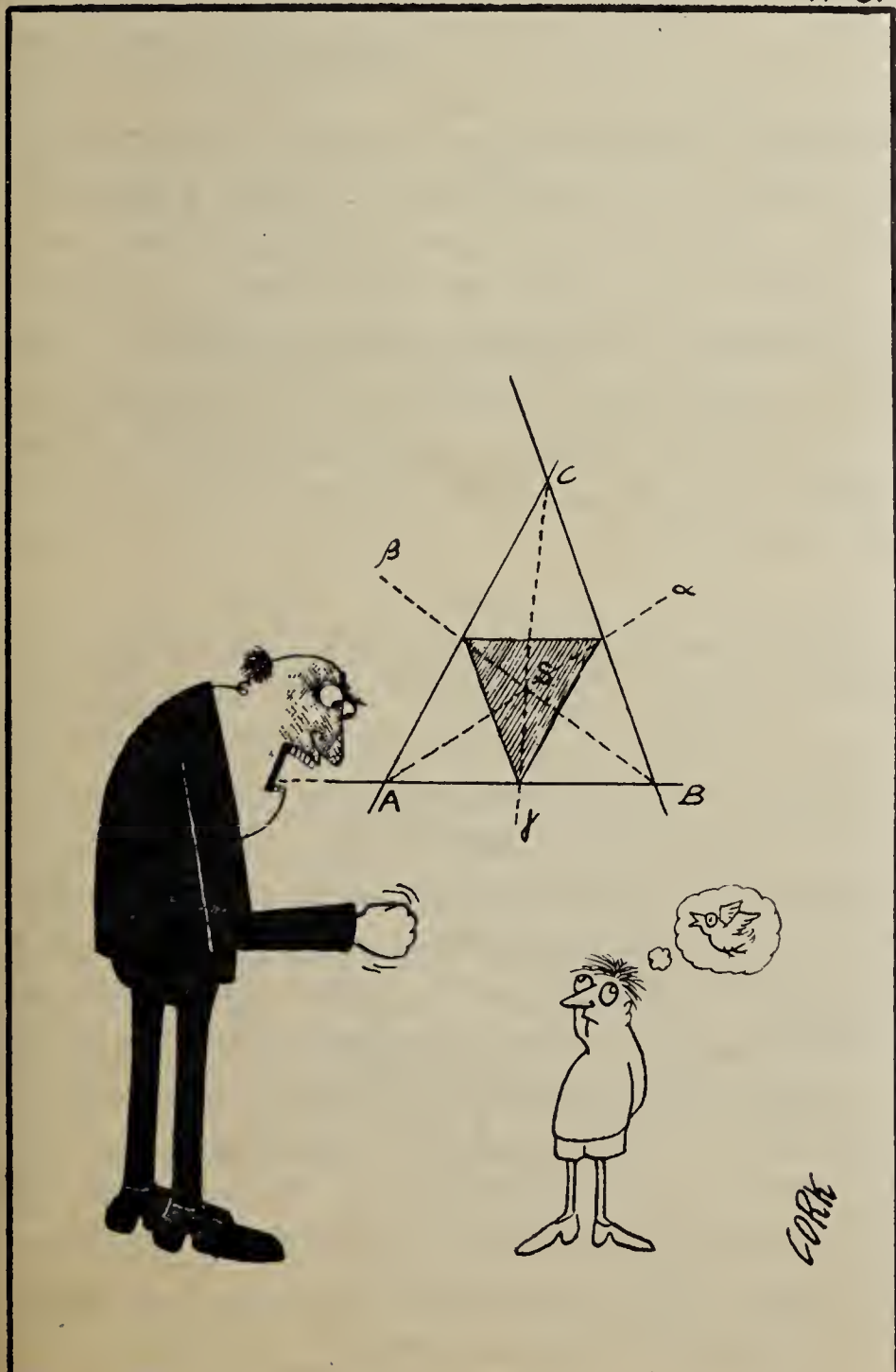
as mathematical rules and formulae and scientific laws, so the argument runs, must be presented to pupils before they have the necessary conceptual underpinning. But, it is claimed, at some point in the future those pupils will acquire the concepts and will then make sense of the material presented earlier. This argument only has force if memory is conceived of as a reservoir of 'traces' which accurately copy aspects of external reality. The problem is then only one of retrieval from this 'reservoir'.

This, of course, is an empiricist conception and quite different from the notion of a memory code continually restructured by evolving schemes and leading to the sort of 'improvement' found by Piaget and Inhelder in relation to the seriation task described above. Seriation is a concept which can show considerable evolution in children over a comparatively short period. With respect to other concepts whose evolution is slower Piaget and Inhelder found deterioration rather than improvement after a six months interval. This was the case, for example, in experiments designed to test children's memory for events the understanding of which involved an appreciation of causal relationships. The force of the memory for seriation experiment is that it provides strong support for the contention that memory is a constructivist rather than a replicative process. It would be inappropriate to generalise more specifically from this experiment that 'improvement' in the memory code can always be expected.

A traditional didactic teaching approach often involves a strong emphasis on memorising compared with other cognitive activities such as questioning, problem-solving, inventing, checking and verifying. If it is supposed that knowledge is acquired as a replication of reality it is reasonable to give memorising a central place.

The traditional didactic teaching model is also characterized by ways of organizing the curriculum and the pupils that differ from those characterizing more informal models. Pupils tend to be organized in more homogeneous groups for teaching purposes than in the latter, for, if the acquisition of know-

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ledge is thought to be a copying process, less attention needs to be paid to individual differences than would be the case for a curriculum based on the constructivist supposition that any specific curriculum content will be differently construed by each pupil. It would be unfair, however, to suggest that traditional didactic teaching pays no attention to individual differences. In some curriculum areas, in mathematics for example, the content is organized sequentially and the pupils are allowed to proceed through the sequence at different rates, some requiring more time and practice than others. Thus this is an acknowledgement of individual differences in terms of pace, that is in quantitative terms.

Informal teaching practices

By contrast more informal teaching practices usually involve heterogeneous grouping of pupils and more diversified curricula. At any one time pupils within a class may be involved with content in different curriculum areas, with different concepts and with different problems according to their interests and concerns as well as their levels of development. Thus individual differences are catered for in qualitative terms, not merely in the quantitative terms of a difference in pace.

It would be wrong to think that an empiricist conception of knowledge is reflected only in traditional didactic teaching. It may well be the basis of certain 'progressive' or 'informal' practices. Figure 6 is an adaptation of a model proposed by Bussis, Chittenden and Amarel (1976) (7) to characterize four teaching styles in early childhood education. Both of the upper quadrants represent teaching

the child and how he learns. The upper left-hand quadrant characterizes classrooms where the teacher plays a non-directive role. The children are likely to have a great deal of freedom of choice of activity. The teacher may well exercise careful forethought regarding the materials she provides for children's learning experiences, but beyond that she intervenes little in their activities. When she does intervene it is more likely to be in order to resolve a social conflict or an emotional problem than to extend a pupil intellectually. Thus there is a high contribution by the children and a low contribution by the teacher in terms of decisions regarding the content and process of learning.

The teaching style characterized by the upper right-hand quadrant is also one in which the children have a great deal of freedom of choice of activity, but, by contrast with the laissez-faire style, the teacher adopts an active role and intervenes in the context of the children's activities to promote learning and development. She takes her cue from the children by constantly diagnosing what they have understood or not understood, what problems they have generated and what ideas they have for the solution of these problems. These diagnoses in turn determine the ways in which she seeks to extend the activities, thinking and understanding of her pupils. Thus it is a teaching style in which both teacher and children make a high contribution to decisions regarding the content and process of learning.

There are a number of possible values and assumptions which could lead to a laissez-faire teaching style in early childhood education, but one of these may well be an empiricist conception of knowledge. Concepts are thought to be somehow embedded in the materials provided and it is assumed that if the children engage in activities with these materials they will automatically acquire those concepts. Thus careful thought is given to materials in terms of the concepts they exemplify, but intervention by the teacher is assumed to be superfluous if the embedded concepts are automatically transmitted to the pupils. This is essentially an empiricist

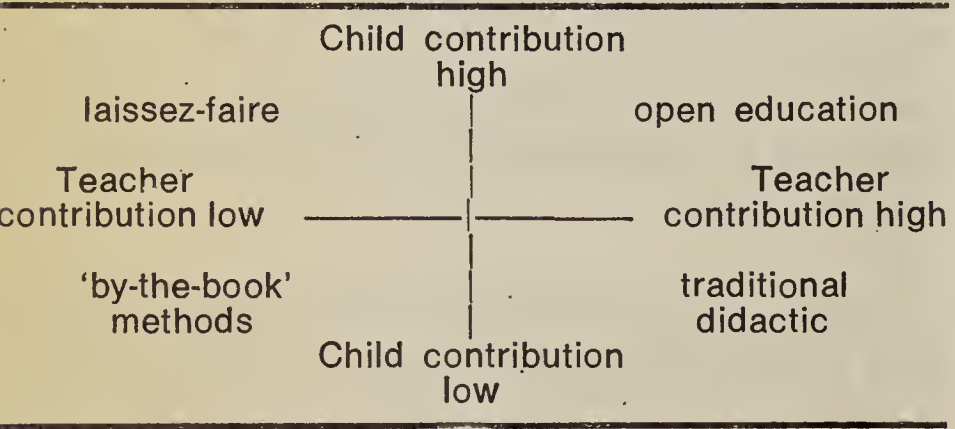


Figure 6

styles usually called 'informal', 'progressive' or 'child-centred'. Both of them are in a sense 'child-centred' but they differ in their view of

conception of the knowledge process. Although this teaching style engages the children in activity it implies a view of their minds as passive. Mere activity, as has been stressed earlier, should not be confused with Piaget's much more refined concept of 'action'.

The . . . confusion consists in believing that an activity with concrete objects is no more than a figurative process, in other words nothing but a way of producing a sort of precise copy, in perceptions or mental images, of the objects in question (Piaget, 1971) (8).

Conclusion: a constructivist teaching style

A teaching style based on Piaget's constructivist account of knowledge requires a high contribution from the teacher as well as the pupils. This high teacher contribution should involve educational dialogues with pupils which fulfil a number of inter-relating functions. Of these the following three are of major importance:

- (a) observing and questioning pupils in such a way as to elicit diagnostic information,
- (b) enabling pupils to reflect on their activities and on the conclusions they have drawn therefrom,

and

- (c) extending pupils' thinking in various ways.

The latter may often include visual demonstrations and verbal presentations by a teacher. But these would be based not on an empiricist assumption that a pupil would acquire the knowledge intended in a copying fashion, but instead would be designed to help a pupil crystallize and systematize the knowledge he has constructed.

This constructivist teaching style requires a complex set of interrelated skills based on a systematic understanding of curriculum

content on the one hand and on relevant research and theory in child development on the other. It would not be realistic to suppose that such understanding and competence can be acquired in more than a rudimentary way at the initial teacher training level. What is required is the professional in-service training of teachers at regularly repeated intervals in their careers. This would result in a teaching profession which continually reflected on its practice in the light of a critical appraisal of relevant research and theory.

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Joan Tamburrini was educated at Stratford Grammar School, East London, at Birkbeck College, University of London where she took a BA in Psychology, and at the University of London Institute of Education where she took a Diploma in Education and an M.Phil. again in Psychology. She taught for seven years mainly in primary schools before joining the staff of the Froebel Educational Institute (now part of the Roehampton Institute of Higher Education) in 1960. Her responsibilities there are chiefly concerned with Diploma in Education and M.A.(Ed.) in Curriculum Studies: Primary Education. Both of these courses are for experienced teachers. Her particular professional interest is in developmental psychology in general and the work of Piaget in particular. She is married to a sculptor and art is one of her major interests outside education.

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CONFERENCE BACKGROUND:

This is the eighth of a series of annual symposia organized in Philadelphia by the Jean Piaget Society, which has its headquarters there. The Society, which has over a thousand active members, is devoted to promoting the work of Jean Piaget, who has been called the father of child psychology, both in the U.S.A. and elsewhere. This three day conference takes the form of a daily symposium, six optional workshops, and short courses, all devoted to aspects of Piagetian theory and their application both in education and other fields.

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May 18 Arrival, Registration

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Piaget's Contribution to Religious Education

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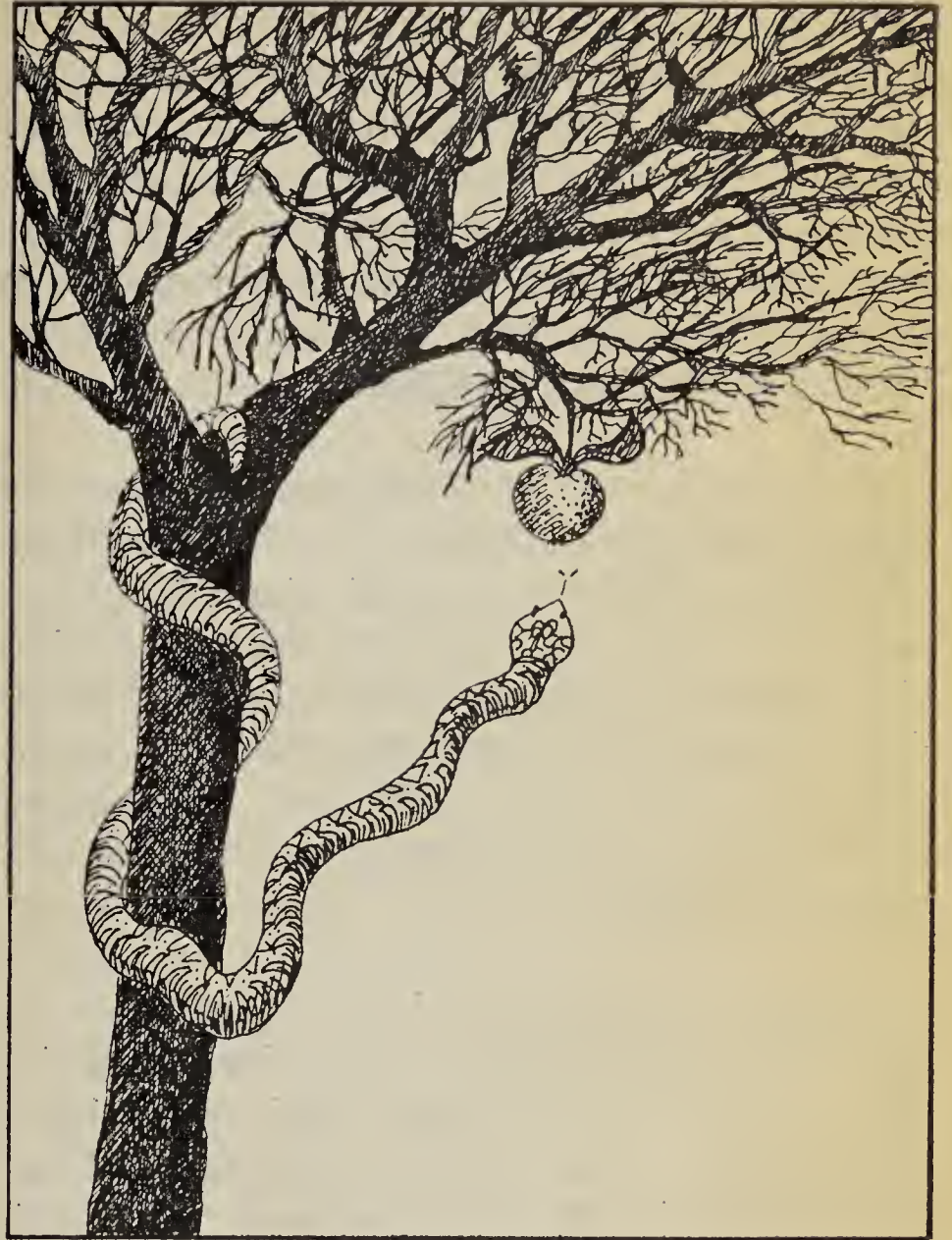
Concluding our set of articles on aspects of the work of Jean Piaget, Dr Robert Platman deals here with Piaget's contribution to religious education. Dr Platman is concerned in this article with the cognitive aspects of religious education, and first defines three important aspects of religion and religious education to explain what he means by these terms. He then describes Piaget's work in investigating the development of the structures of children's moral thinking, which Piaget showed were not stages but processes of moral development, and led him to show how the early morality of constraint imposed on the child from without becomes, through the development of a sense of justice, the morality of cooperation which is characteristic of maturity.

Dr Platman then discusses the work of two researchers, Professors Kohlberg (in the USA) and Goldman (in the UK), who have each made important contributions to moral pedagogy by developing Piaget's early work in this sphere. He first shows how the cross-cultural work of Kohlberg has led him to define three stages of religious development which are of great importance both to moral pedagogy and social studies. He then goes on to show how Goldman's independent work in Britain, stressing how religious understanding develops in the child in parallel with its general development and depends on enriching its general experience. He describes the three stages of development which Goldman has defined.

Dr Platman concludes by stressing the importance of the work of these three researchers in developing a moral pedagogy which by being correctly staged will hopefully lead to greater religious tolerance and understanding worldwide, since this work should be relevant to the teaching of all religions, not just Christianity.

Introduction

The educator who has studied Piaget's work may never have thought about its implications for religious education unless that is one of his principal concerns or unless he is expected to give religious or moral instruction as part of his work in a school operated by a religious institution. Indeed, since Piaget has hardly anything to say about religious education or the development of religious thinking, one may wonder why his name should be drawn into a discussion of religious education at all.



Yet Piaget's work is being studied by religious educators, and research based on his findings is being carried on today by investigators whose principal concern is either religious or moral education. Perhaps these scholars and teachers have taken to heart Piaget's warning that the religious instruction often given to young children seems to be something alien to the child's natural thought, and evokes conceptions lacking both subtlety and intricacy(1).

The meaning of religion and religious education

What follows is a brief survey of the work of two investigators in the development of moral and religious thinking, whose research has been based upon the work of Piaget. But before proceeding, some clarification of what is meant by religion and religious education in the context of this article may be helpful.

Religion will be taken to mean the confluence of (1) a belief system or world-view by which people make sense out of life and by which they express a relation to the Transcendent, (2) an ethical outlook or value system by which they strive to live together in relative harmony within a human community and in accordance with what they view as transcendental ethical principals, and (3) a system of rituals, acts of worship, prayers, and the like, by which they express devotion to the Transcendent and which help to bind together in community those who live according to a particular religious tradition.

The confluence of these three strands of human concern is apparent in the traditions of Judaism, Christianity, and Islam. Since the writer is a Christian, however, he will confine his remarks to religious education in the setting of that tradition, although there is no obvious reason why different conclusions would have to be drawn in the cases of Judaism or Islam.

Religious Education, then, would mean at least the following: (1) transmission of the world-view of the particular religious tradition, including its scriptures, its legends, and the community history of its followers, (2) inculcation of its ethical view, including methods for dealing with ethical problems and conflicts, and (3) training in its ways of worship and devotion, with explanation of the goals and meanings of these practices. Obviously, such a project has both a cognitive and an affective aspect, both of which must be dealt with effectively if the religious educator is to accomplish his goals, and which are mixed together in various ways in the three aspects of religious education. However, it is with the **cognitive** aspect of religious education that this article is concerned.

The structures of children's moral thinking

A major aspect of Piaget's research that has been of interest to religious educators is his description of the development of the structures of children's moral thinking or moral judgment. This is also of concern to secular educators, many of whom hold that education, quite apart from any religious influence,

has as one of its aims the transmission of the commonly accepted moral values of a particular society or culture. For this reason, we will look first at this phase of Piaget's work.

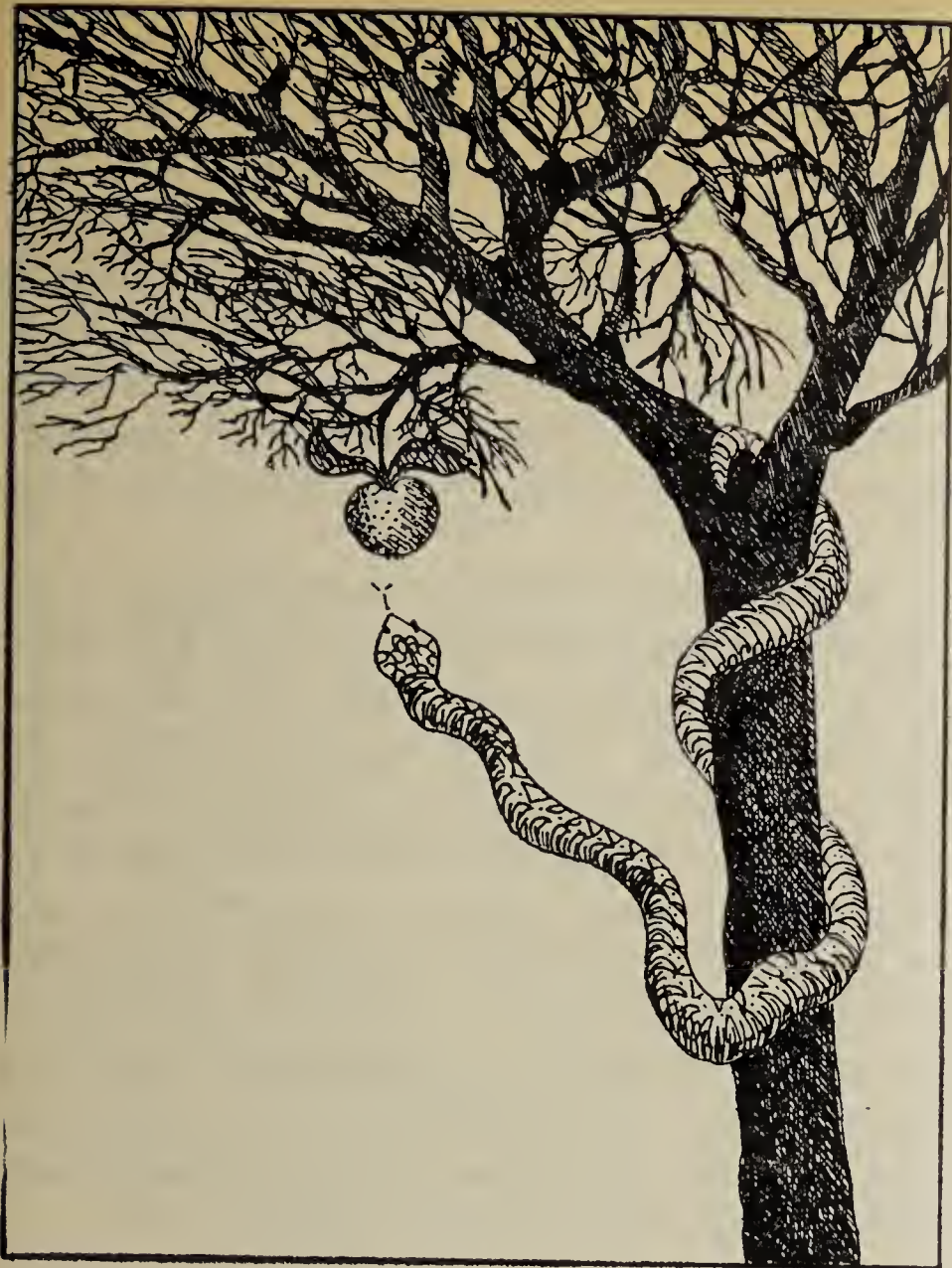
Here, Piaget has not been as precise in his outline of developmental stages as he has been in the case of the development of cognitive structures, although in his descriptions of the latter he has often included a few comments on moral development at each stage. It should be noted, too, that Piaget regards morality as a system of rules for behavior, and that, for him, the essence of individual morality consists in respect for these rules(2).

Piaget studied what he calls **moral judgment**. That is, what he analyzed was not the actual moral decisions or moral behavior of children, but the way they evaluate a given episode of behavior described in a story(3). But it has been his hypothesis that the verbal or theoretical moral judgment of the child broadly corresponds with practical moral decisions he has made in his own behavior, although there is a lag in time between the latter and the former(4).

The morality of constraint versus the morality of cooperation

What Piaget has defined, as a result of his research, is not a series of stages of moral development, but **processes** which, although they mingle and overlap, mark broad divisions of moral development. He has described these as the morality of constraint and the morality of cooperation(5). In the morality of constraint, the good is rigidly defined by obedience to the rules of behaviour, the intentions of the agent are not taken into account(6), and the moral rules are simply imposed by adult authority upon the child, who has no part in formulating them(7). This type of morality predominates in early childhood, but gradually gives place to that of the second type.

The morality of cooperation develops along with mutual respect in the relationships between children and adults. In this type of moral thinking, subjective responsibility re-



places objective responsibility. The intentions of the moral agent are taken into account, as well as the circumstances or situation in which the moral act takes place. The emphasis is upon respect for rules cooperatively formulated for the common good but which allow for the consideration of individual circumstances and situations(8). It is apparent that Piaget regards this as a higher order of morality than the morality of constraint and that he considers it the only type of morality appropriate for a democratic society(9).

Piaget has not developed a pedagogy to assist the child in moving from the morality of constraint to the morality of cooperation, but he has explained that it is cooperation among children and adults that alone can do this (10). In fact, he has found that the sense of justice requires nothing more for its development than the mutual respect and solidarity which can exist among children themselves(11). Moreover, Piaget would agree with John Dewey that it is not the content of education, even moral education, that moves the child in this direction, but rather the

social organization of the school. What is required is the introduction of democratic methods into schools, so that unilateral respect for authority is replaced by the mutual respect of autonomous persons(12).

Whether the religious educator will agree with Piaget's prescription will, of course, depend on whether the educator is himself dominated by the morality of constraint or the morality of cooperation. It is apparent that the adherents of any of the three great religions of the West may fall into either of these two categories of moral thinking.

The work of Kohlberg

In America, the student of Piaget who has gained the most attention in recent years for his research in the development of moral thinking is Lawrence Kohlberg, Professor of Education and Social Psychology at Harvard University. Kohlberg by no means agrees with all of Piaget's findings in this area, though it might be said that he takes up where Piaget leaves off(13).

Kohlberg has been engaged in longitudinal, cross-cultural studies of the development of moral thinking in children and youth of many different religions in the United States, Taiwan, Mexico (Yucatan), and Turkey. His concern has been with how moral judgments are made, not with their content. He has shown that the individual passes through an invariant sequence of stages in moral development, in which no stage can be skipped, although an individual may be arrested in his development somewhere along the way. No exact age limits can be set for the three levels of moral development which Kohlberg found (each of which is divided into two substages). There are differences between urban and rural children as well as social class differences. But the religious educator should take note that there are no denominational differences, or even differences between Christians, Moslems, and Buddhists(14).

Kohlberg calls the earliest level of moral reasoning '**pre-conventional**'. Here moral reasoning is based purely on the consequences which the action brings upon the agent,

such as punishment, reward, or exchange of favors, and on the physical power of those in authority. The second level is that of '**conventional**' morality, in which moral reasoning involves the consideration of the interests of others and the desire to support the existing social order. The third, or latest, level Kohlberg terms '**post-conventional**'. At this level, moral reasoning incorporates moral values and principles that have validity and application beyond the authority of groups. Moral reasoning becomes comprehensive and reflects universal principles(15). (Kohlberg found that only 20 to 25 per cent of the American population arrives at this level) (16).

Perhaps the most important thing Kohlberg has done for religious and moral educators is to provide the basis for moral pedagogy: for he has demonstrated that individuals can be helped to advance one substage in moral thinking by participation in discussion at a level one substage, but not more than one, above where they are at the moment. In addition to discussion, the development of moral thinking is aided by role-taking in social groups, bearing out Piaget's prescription (17).

The educators who so far seem to have been most diligent in pursuing Kohlberg's leads and developing strategies for moral education are those engaged in the social studies. Research in applying Kohlberg's theories to the social studies curriculum is currently being carried on at Carnegie-Mellon University in Pittsburgh. Some of this research has been aimed at establishing criteria for effective group discussion of moral dilemmas, as well as defining the characteristics of moral dilemmas suitable for such discussion. Necessary steps in the teaching process and the role of the teacher in moral education are also being specified as a result of this research (18).

The work of Goldman

It may well be that many religious educators in the English-speaking world have been introduced to Piaget through the writing of one of his former students, Ronald Goldman, whose interest has been primarily in the cognitive aspect of religious education, as it is

related to the religious world-view or belief system. Although he is now in Australia, Goldman has been Principal of Didsbury College of Education, at Manchester, England, and Senior Lecturer in Educational Psychology in the University of Reading. It was not, then, as a religious educator that Goldman undertook work with Piaget, but as an educational psychologist interested in developing better methods for the teaching of history.

Nevertheless, Goldman's own religious concerns, combined with his interest in his children's religious education and his awareness of the general lack of success of the religious education programs in British schools, led him into research in the development of religious thinking from early childhood to late adolescence. Goldman's research represents a major achievement in our understanding of the development of the **structures** of religious thinking and has implications for religious education that Goldman and others have been working out since its publication.

Goldman's basic premise has been that religious traditions, on their cognitive side, are formulated largely as metaphors and analogies which are generalized interpretations of experiences, perceptions, and previously held concepts, and which are combined to form an interpretative concept of the nature and activity of the Transcendent. That is to say that religious concepts are formed from other perceptions and conceptions of experience, rather than upon direct sensory data. Consequently, religious thinking depends upon understanding the original experiences upon which the analogies and metaphors of the world-view or belief system of a religious tradition are based (19).

Goldman's hypothesis, therefore, was that development in the child's religious thinking would be **parallel** to the development of his thinking in other areas, corresponding to the structural stages described by Piaget. Indeed, this is exactly what Goldman's research showed to be the case, except that development in religious thinking, because of its secondary character, lags somewhat behind the development of thinking in other

areas. In other words, understanding in religion depends on understanding in the other areas of life (20).

As a consequence, the fundamental preparation for a child's religious education is not specifically religious at all but is the enrichment of his general experience. Indeed, Goldman does not even include Piaget's sensory-motor period or the pre-conceptual sub-stage of the period of pre-operational thinking in his stages of religious thinking, and he recommends no **formal** religious education at all during these years (21). What the religious educator probably needs to do for these children is to help their parents understand their children's religious development.

Goldman's stages of religious development

Goldman's description of the stages of the development of religious thinking begins with what he calls the '**pre-religious**' stage, corresponding to Piaget's 'intuitive' sub-stage of the period of pre-operational thought. At this stage, the child has no real insight into the religious view of life. He cannot deal with the significance of religious experience language, and thought, which are merged into general experience. All the limitations of thinking which Piaget has shown at this stage apply to religious thinking as well, but in religious thinking they continue up to the mental age of seven or eight. Whatever religious teaching may be undertaken at this stage must be done with constant reference to what the child has known and experienced himself. What is needed is emphasis on the religious character of the child's ordinary experience, placing it alongside the experience of others in the past and in the present (22).

In contrast to this advice, it is not unheard of for a religious education syllabus to suggest that such stories as the Call of Samuel (1 Samuel 3) or Jacob's Vision at Bethel (Genesis 28:10-22) can be used with children at this stage to show how God has taught that the spiritual world is always around us and within us. One syllabus even recommends the story of the Temptation of Jesus (Matthew 4:1-11) for six year olds. None of these illustrations could possibly correspond to the

child's own experience.

The second stage in Goldman's description of religious thinking corresponds to Piaget's period of concrete operational thought and has been variously called by Goldman the '**sub-religious**' or '**preparatory religious**' or 'pre-Christian' stage. This extends from about the mental age of seven or eight into adolescence. During this period the child may translate the abstractions of religion into concrete terms. For this reason, this stage poses the greatest intellectual problem for children seeking to understand religion. The child is only able to form a theological view of the world which his current stage of operational thinking will permit. The danger is that too much religious teaching too early, especially of Bible stories, will lead the child to focus upon trivialities in the stories and will result in the accretion of verbalisms and misconceptions in his mind. Nevertheless, it is not uncommon to attempt to teach the parables of Jesus to children at this stage of development, in spite of the fact that the significance of a parable is abstract rather than concrete. Indeed, the attempt to introduce religious concepts too soon can lead to regressive thinking in religion so that more mature religious insights may be retarded or never develop at all. Goldman has shown that children tend to carry misunderstandings into early adolescence, but may then react against their crudity by rejecting religion as intellectually untenable (23).

The appropriate religious teaching at this stage, therefore, should focus on concrete experience and tangible, factual materials. The concrete aspects of biblical lands and society can now be taught, as well as the life of Jesus as a man. Themes based on the real world of the child's experience can be utilized so that real things can be seen in a religious perspective. For example, the following themes might be used: homes, friends, names, holidays, seasons, bread, sheep and shepherds, and symbols, all of which can be related both to the lives of children and to the literature of the Bible (24).

The breakthrough to mature religious thinking comes in the stage Piaget calls the period

of formal operational thought. Goldman calls this the '**personal religious**' stage. During this period, which can begin when the mental age of 13 or 14 has been attained, the young person will probably make some commitment for or against religion. It now becomes possible for the child to begin to discard the crude concrete considerations which have obscured the essential meaning of Bible stories and to grapple with their abstract, analogical, metaphorical, and propositional aspects. The core of the cognitive aspect of religious education at this stage should be the task of reinterpretation. The teacher must help his pupils to explore the inner meaning of the history and legends in the Hebrew scriptures and of the parables, miracles, and direct teaching of Jesus as recorded in the New Testament. Pupils should be helped to grow into a more analytical view of the Bible and to carry out active exploration and research concerning the biblical text. Nevertheless, it is still necessary at this stage to face the problem of the relevance of the biblical material. Religious truths, to be seen as relevant, must be connected with the experience of the persons to whom one is attempting to communicate them (25).

Goldman's research has been used as the basis for building curricula and for writing courses of study for religious education both in England and the United States. His research has been replicated in many countries, with similar results (26).

Conclusion

This has been a brief summary of research in religious and moral education which has been generated by the work of Piaget. Much of this research is still under way and involves longitudinal studies. Other workers, too numerous to mention here, are following up leads provided by Piaget and these two pioneer investigators. It may be hoped that out of this will come a pedagogy which will recognize the possibilities for the religious and moral development of individuals and which will help to develop a more universal human community through the leadership of persons whose moral and religious insights can be universally shared.

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26. For example, John Howard Peatling, 'The Incidence of Concrete and Abstract Religious Thinking . . .', (unpublished Doctor's dissertation, New York University, 1973). Another major research project in religious development that should be mentioned as stemming from Piaget's work is that of James W. Fowler III, a member of the faculty of the Harvard Divinity School, who is investigating the structural stages of religious faith. Pre-

liminary reports on this research have only recently begun to appear in the journals. See James W. Fowler III, 'Toward a Developmental Perspective on Faith', **Religious Education**, LXIX (March-April, 1974), 207-19.

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TERMINOLOGY OF PIAGETIAN CONCEPTS (Continued)

MARY ANN PULASKI

PART II: I-Z

INRC Groups. Logico-mathematical groups characterized by four kinds of transformations: Identity, Negation, Reciprocity, and Correlation. They occur in the thinking of the period of formal operations.

Intuitive Reasoning. Characteristic of the preoperational child between four and seven. It is based on immediate perception but through trial and error may lead to correct conclusions.

Maturation. The emergence of patterns of development which are innate within the organism and appear in sequential order in all normal development.

Moral Realism. The young child's view that the severity of punishment should depend on the amount of damage done, regardless of intention (e.g., it is worse to break six glasses accidentally than one glass deliberately because six glasses cost more than one).

Morality of Constraint. Based on a sense of moral realism. Punishment is meted out according to the amount of damage done, regardless of intention. The harshest punishment is the fairest. Characteristic of preoperational children.

Morality of Cooperation. Takes into account the motives and degree of responsibility of the offending child. Punishment is not based just on the amount of damage done. Characteristic of the period of concrete operations.

Operations. The interiorized activities of the mind, as opposed to the sensory-motor or physical activities of the body. Characterized by logical thought processes which are reversible. **Concrete operations** are concerned with concrete, existing objects and include ordering, serial arrangements, and classification, as well as mathematical processes. **Formal or Second-order operations** are concerned with logical propositions and hypothetical reasoning, based on theoretical constructs rather than concrete objects.

Perception. The direct and immediate first impression of objects or situations perceived. (See Centration.)

Perceptual Activity. The continuing aspect of perception which modifies and corrects the often inaccurate first perception by focusing on other aspects of the stimulus and incorporating all perceptions into a more accurate whole. (See Decentration.)

Perceptual Constancy. The ability to perceive objects as constant in size, shape, color, etc., even when seen

in changing settings which make them appear different (e.g. a man is perceived as life-sized even when seen from a block away so that he actually appears much smaller).

Perceptual Reasoning. Based on immediate appearances. Characteristic of the preoperational child who focuses on only one aspect of a stimulus at a time. (See Intuitive reasoning.)

Preconcepts. The child's first, fuzzy attempts at generalization, in which he confuses representatives of a class with the whole class. Preconceptual thinking characterizes the child between two and four years old.

Preoperational. Refers to the period of early childhood preceding the emergence of logical, reversible operations. Characterized by egocentric thinking and illogical intuitions based upon perception.

Realism. The child's belief that whatever is real to him, such as dreams, feelings, or pictures, has objective reality and is shared by other people.

Representation. The process by which an image, a sign, or a symbol comes to represent an external reality. In symbolic play, a child may use acorns to represent nonexistent dishes. Memories are interiorized images, whereas words are verbal signs which represent complexes of socially shared meanings.

Schema (plural, Schemas or Schemata). A mental structure or pattern of behavior arising out of the integration of simpler, more primitive units into an enlarged and more complex whole (e.g., many separate finger movements gradually become co-ordinated into the complex skill of piano playing).

Sensory-Motor. Refers to learning based on information received through physical exploration and sensory stimulation.

Social Transmission. A form of learning which depends on verbal instruction and experiences of a social or cultural nature.

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Piaget, Jean, and Inhelder, Barbel. **The Child's Conception of Space.** Translated by F. J. Langdon and J. L. Lunzer. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1967. pp.490. The manner in which the developing child begins to visualize spatial characteristics is the central thesis of this work.

Piaget, J. and Inhelder, B. **The Psychology of the Child.** Translated by Helen Weaver. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1969. pp. 173. This book summarizes Piaget's work in child psychology.

Piaget, Jean and Inhelder, Barbel. **Memory and Intelligence.** Describes the nature of memory and illustrates its relationship to intelligence.

Piaget, Jean. **The Origins of Intelligence in Children.** New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc. 1952. pp.419. This book traces the development of intelligence in children through six successive stages.

Piaget, Jean. **Play, Dreams and Imitation in Childhood.** Translated by C. Gattegno and F. M. Hodgson. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc. 1962, pp.296. Piaget considers the development of cognitive representation. He develops two main theses; first, he traces in the field of play and imitation, the conversion from sensory motor assimilation and accommodation to mental assimilation and accommodation. Secondly, he illustrates how interaction takes place between different types of representation.

Piaget, Jean. **Judgment and Reasoning in the Child.** Edited by C. K. Ogden. Translated by Marjorie Warden. New Jersey: Littlefield, Adams and Company, 1966. pp.260. In this book Piaget explains how the child responds when confronted with conjunctions of causality and logical relations.

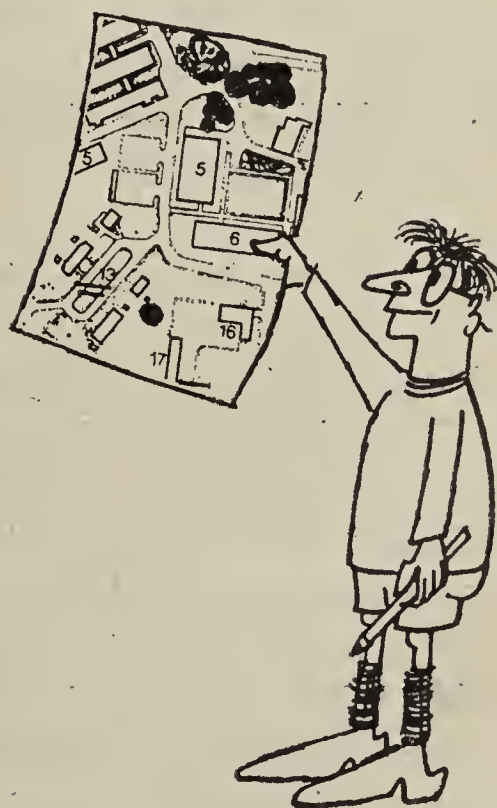
Piaget, Jean. **The Language and Thought of the Child.** Translated by Marjorie Babain. Cleveland and New York: The World Publishing Company, 1966. pp.251. In this volume, Piaget explains that the development of language and thought is of a qualitative nature and not merely dependent upon quantitative addition of experience.

Pulaski, Mary Ann Spencer. **Understanding Piaget; An Introduction to Children's Cognitive Development.** New York, Harper & Row, 1971, pp.241. A real introduction. Piaget's ideas are explained in lucid and simple language without losing their theoretical vigor.

Ripple, R. E. and Rockcastle, V. N., ed. **Piaget Rediscovered.** Cornell University School of Education, 1964. pp.150. This volume is a report on conferences held in March, 1964, at Cornell University and University of California dealing with cognitive studies and curriculum development. Four of the papers are major addresses by Jean Piaget, who served as chief consultant to the conferences.

Schwebel, Milton and Raph, Jane. **Piaget in the Classroom.** New York: Basic Books. 1973. Pioneering symposium on the application of Piaget's ideas to education.

Stendler, Celia. **The Developmental Approach of Piaget and its Implications for Science in the Elementary Schools.** New York, MacMillan Company, 1966, pp.24. By clarifying Piaget's developmental approach, this publication helps teachers gain new insights to teaching science more effectively.



CORK

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PIAGETIAN RESEARCH. COMPILATION AND COMMENTARY

Modgil, Sohan and Celia

Slough, NFER Publishing Company 1976

Eight Volumes

This is an extraordinary series of volumes and, together with the same authors' earlier **Piagetian Research: A handbook of recent studies** (NFER) 1974), constitutes something unique in the history of psychology. No other psychologist, except perhaps Freud, has given rise to so much work devoted to his theories, either by his own pupils or disciples or by those who have found what he has to say stimulating and challenging. The Modgils have striven to make their series encyclopaedic in the sense that well over 3,500 separate pieces of research work are reported in abstract form in sufficient detail to give the reader enough to make a judgement as to whether the particular paper is of importance to him. Most of the work cited is published in reputable journals; some of it was unpublished at the time of going to press; some was specially written. Most of the abstracts have been provided by the authors of the compilation, but some by the research workers themselves. The Modgils do not claim to be exhaustively comprehensive but to present as full a picture as possible of the trends and findings of research within the Piagetian framework conducted in the past two decades or so and to relate this where necessary to earlier work of Piaget himself, and of those who have worked to illuminate or refute, criticise or merely replicate his findings and basic theories.

The eight volumes cover between them some fifteen areas corresponding to the key themes, areas and applications of Piaget's work, among them: Cognitive theory; Sensori-motor intelligence; Conservation; Training Techniques; Logic; Space; Handicapped children; Crosscultural research. Each volume and each major subdivision is prefaced by a survey article by the Modgils which strives to bring together the main threads of the work subsequently cited and abstracted, to integrate it in a sensibly critical way and to show its bearing on the Piaget canon as it is perceived in Geneva. In addition, the first volume

contains an appreciation and a bibliography of Piaget's main works. There is a foreword by Bärbel Inhelder in which, too briefly, she is at pains to clear up some basic conceptual confusions which have affected work based upon Piagetian theory by those who have striven to invalidate it from geneticist and environmental standpoints.

The problem faced by any reviewer of work like this is that of how to review it and certainly of how to review it without reviewing the whole immense body of work by Piaget himself, the Geneva school and that inspired by Piagetian theory. If we look at it from the standpoint of a student teacher, the introductory analysis provided by the authors are useful, well documented mapping exercises which enable a grasp of the general lines of the areas covered. But because of the condensation which was clearly necessary, beginners at any rate will require very careful guidance and discussion if they are to make much of some of them. For the more advanced student, the introductions are perhaps more useful since, in addition to thematic mapping, they direct his attention clearly to the relevant literature and one would assume, simplify his initial literature search.

One can also look at the abstracts. The authors themselves make it quite clear that while they could and did exercise some selectivity and some quality judgement as to what to include or exclude, and while they do from time to time make evaluative statements, anything like a fully critical and evaluative study of every paper or thesis included was impossible — and possibly undesirable. In general, the abstracts give details of the aim, method and results of each study cited, and do so in sufficient detail to allow the reader to get some idea of such matters as sample size, measurement and analysis techniques and the principal conclusions. This they do to a degree considerably greater than that usual with abstracts. In some cases, abstracts are lengthy; in others one gets the impression that a whole paper has been reproduced, and often this is valuable. A reading even of the briefer abstracts in any of the subsections of any of the main areas would certainly give a

student the feel of the literature and provide a stimulating short cut to a consideration both of the experimental design and of the evaluation of the theories tested, and the wide variety of methodologies which have been applied.

Thus the work has some of the characteristics both of the well-documented expository text-book and of the book of readings. In view of what was attempted, it is difficult to see what else could have been done. Of course, one can criticise points of detail and points of interpretation. If one looks closely and with expert knowledge, one could certainly find omissions, though I would guess that few of them would turn out to be serious. What is clear to this writer is that those who are interested in the general structure of psychological theory, of the ways in which it is criticised from standpoints other than its own, and of its testing in a great variety of fields by empirical methods, are immensely in the Modgils' debt and will praise the NFER for undertaking a considerable and risky publishing task.

A similar remark applies to those who are interested in the criticism and exegesis and extension of the work of Piaget, his followers and his critics, for the abstracts do not simply cover experimental work. They also take in critical and expository articles, some of them difficult to find elsewhere, (for example, in

Vol. 8 Obuche and Pearson's paper 'Surveying research in Africa concerning conservation and classification') or which have been specially written for the book, (for example, the page or two on 'play and language' prepared by Rosenblatt).

Another and rather different example is the lengthy section devoted to Kohlberg's Extension of Piaget's Schema (Vol. V pp.55-194), which gives a very thorough survey of work in the field of moral development by Kohlberg himself and by others testing his extension of Piaget's **Moral Judgement of the Child**.

It is a large and, to some extent, a sprawling work. But it has a logical structure, it is well indexed and clearly arranged. It is perhaps uneven at times but not exasperatingly so, and some of the unevenness in fact reflects as much the state of the literature as any failing in the compilers. It is not a bedside book, but it is an important working tool for those engaged in research and a very useful quarry for students wishing to acquaint themselves with the work of one of the most remarkable figures in developmental psychology.

W. D. WALL

Professor of Child Development and Educational Psychology, University of London Institute of Education, England. Member of the WEF Guiding Committee.

EDUCATION FOR SELF-DISCOVERY

Edited by J. B. Annand

Hodder and Stoughton, 1977, for World Education Fellowship.

Boards £3.95. Unibook £1.95. pp.96

To the memory of Peggy Volkov, of whom an appreciation follows in WEF News, editor of the *New Era*, 1934-1963, in whom feeling and intellect were so exactly matched.

This book constitutes a plea, and argues a case, for a new balance in education — a balance which gives equal attention to the nourishment of feeling and of intellect. It has been written at the instigation of the World Education Fellowship, and is intended as a memorial to the late Dr Peggy Volkov, Editor of *The New Era*, 1934-63.

Briefly, the book is a collection of essays, written from different standpoints by men and women with many years' experience in teaching and in relevant research. Dr Madhuri Shah (India) states a general case for education for self-discovery. Professor J. Staines (Australia) reinforces this, with particular emphasis on the psychology of the development of self-understanding. Dr Ruth Froyland Nielsen (Norway) examines the psychological literature on the relationship between one's body and one's self-image. Professor W. D. Wall (London) deals in detail with the search for identity which we all pursue. Professor Ben Morris (Bristol) stresses the fact that 'feeling by itself is not a sufficient category on which to base one's thinking about education', and suggests what else is required, while Miss M. L. Hourd (Exeter) deals in depth with the Life of Feeling in an analysis of Wordsworth's *The Prelude*. A fresh conception of curriculum building is put forward by Dr James Hemming (London), supported by reference to Ornstein's work on the brain as being relevant to education. Dr James Henderson (London) takes the theme into the international field in 'The Self-Discovery of a World Citizen.' The last essay, by Professor H. Nakajima (Japan) shows how the search for self-discovery has been, and is, carried on in his country, with reference to the influence of Western thought on Japanese education. A short Introduction has been written by J. B. Annand, who has edited the book.

ADAM CURLE

Professor Curle is chairman of the School of Peace Studies, University of Bradford, England. He has published numerous articles and research papers on education in developing countries, and on peace and conflict research, and several books, including 'Educational strategy for developing countries (1963)', and 'Mystics and Militants (1973)'.

EDUCAZIONE E EMARGINAZIONE

(On the margins of education)

Maria C. Venuti Borruso

Introduction by Prof. Lamberto Borghi

La Nuova Italia Editrice, Firenze

Nov. 1977, Lire 4000

As result of the meeting of the World Education Fellowship in London in 1975, two of the Italian participants arranged a seminar in Italy in December 1976 on the subject of disaffection towards the school which is the subject of the book. The term 'emarginazione' indicates the exclusion of many students and society in general from the process of education.

Prof. Borghi points out that these are old problems in a new form. It is no longer just the exodus from the country-side, the waves of immigrants and emigrants, the exploitation of the workers, mass deportations, Gulag, ecological disasters, but also the insidious moulding of consciences by the mass media, the increasingly repressive powers of Governments: all these factors have created a feeling of great helplessness in the human condition, a silent despair among individuals. 'On the lost shores of the world crowd the excluded and disenchanting'.

Great efforts have been made by the Italian Parliament and Government to make the schools more democratic and to remove one of the main causes which made them the greatest instrument of 'exclusion'. The Law of 1973 states that 'the school should have the character of a community which is able to interact with the larger social and civic community of the country'.

Some of the problems are not only ancient, but also ingrained in the social and economic structure of the country.

In *MAFIA E EMARGINAZIONE*, V. D'Alessandro, shows how fear and intimidation pervade Sicilian society with the consequence that people refuse to take an active part in the political life of the town, or participate in

social and cultural activities. The percentage of illiteracy is still very high. The school has failed to teach and train people to face facts and take a stand, instead of evading the issues because of fear. Even to the most innocent question of the researchers, the answer was: 'I know nothing, I have seen nothing'.

In *EMARGINAZIONE E DIALETTO*, Maria C. Venuti Borruso deals with another old problem of the country. Until very recently, in the whole of Italy, dialects were the norm. Italian was taught in school in the same painstaking way as with a foreign language. Obviously, people from Tuscany and Umbria where 'Italian' was their 'dialect' since before Dante, scored very highly. The same applied to the middle classes, who had been trained to speak Italian for the last couple of generations.

In a village in Sicily to the question: 'Where must you speak Italian?' up to 84% answered:

TALKING, WRITING AND LEARNING 8-13

Margaret Mallett and Bernard Newsome with a Foreword by James Britton

Schools Council Working Paper 59, Evans/

Methuen Educational, £3.55, pp.254

ISBN 0 423 89910 4

This report of the English in the Middle Years of Schooling Project (1970-72) aims to get teachers thinking about the priorities in a language programme for pupils in the middle years age-range.

The two-year project was directed by Bernard Newsome with Margaret Mallett as research officer, and based at Goldsmiths' College, University of London. The project team's brief was to look at promising practice. They studied the work of some forty schools, covering a variety of school organization in town and country, and inner-city areas, and a wide range of approaches to language work across the curriculum.

The first chapter, 'Contexts', presents examples of the range of work encountered in the schools. It describes and discusses them in some detail, and shows the many and com-

'At school'.

There is a fascinating list of occasions where to speak Italian is part of 'good manners': 'when one speaks to important people, to educated people, people from the North, foreigners, at special functions, when I am not known.' In a town like Trapani, only 13% speaks Italian at home.

Inevitably large sections of society feel excluded from rich cultures in dialect, while others feel that an Italian language, expressing middle class social standards, is being forced on them.

However, incongruities between Southerners and Northerners, ex-peasants and Fiat workers, between young and old are getting less and less every day. This book is an honest contribution to a furthering of this process.

V. COLLINGWOOD

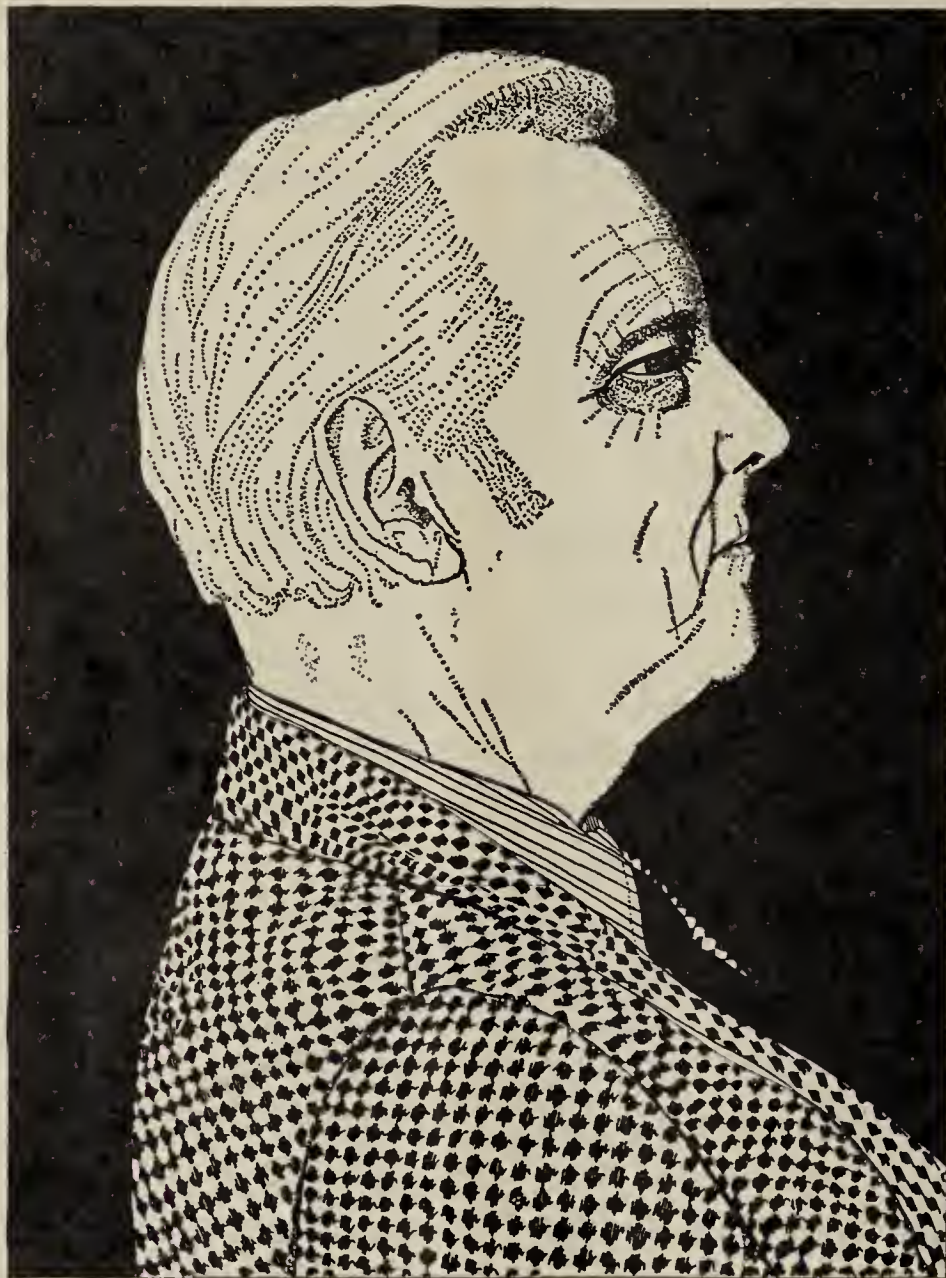
plex factors in successful practice. The contexts are the lifeblood of the report; subsequent chapters deal with issues arising here.

Chapter II examines the problems pupils face in bridging the gap between personal experience and school learning. Chapter III studies spoken language, and improvised drama in the learning programme. Chapter IV looks at ways pupils can be helped to make progress in writing across the curriculum. Chapter V pulls together the view of language and learning running through the report, and considers some of the advantages and disadvantages of different patterns of organization, with accounts of how six schools approach their task.

In his foreword James Britton, formerly chairman of *Ideas* editorial board, writes, 'A reader cannot fail to be struck by the breadth of views and sympathies that these two observers take into the classrooms that provided their data . . . I can recommend nothing better to anyone concerned with language and learning in the middle years of schooling.'

CHAIRMAN OF THE WEF

Readers may be interested to learn that Dr James Henderson has announced his intention of retiring from the office of chairman of the WEF at the end of 1978. This means that his successor will have to be appointed at the annual general meeting in August 1978. Section secretaries have been notified of further details and nomination procedures.



UNITAR AND THE UNITED NATIONS INTERNATIONAL YOUTH YEAR 1980

A report from **Helen C. Lahey**, New Era Associate Editor, New York, on her work with the United Nations Institute for Training and Research (**UNITAR**), in preparation for International Youth Year 1980.

I am currently working for UNITAR on the records of the last thirty years of United Nations Internships and Selected Fellowships, whose 30th anniversary the UN will be celebrating this coming 33rd General Assembly. An important resolution was approved declaring 1980 International Youth Year. All the UN agencies, departments, and divisions are being asked to prepare for publication an account of their work with the UN in communicating with the world's youth and involving youth in UN activities.

Our UNITAR study is the only study in this field currently underway, but it's been quite a struggle to locate our data, going back to 1947, when the first

pilot project got off the ground. We plan to have it ready for publication this summer and have just completed a computer analysis of data on nearly 5,000 Internes and Fellows obtained from questionnaires distributed world-wide. We have created a 'learning center' in UNITAR. It has been a truly thrilling experiment. More than 40 young collegians have served over the 9 months of the project as research 'internes'. They are highly enthusiastic about playing so active a role in producing the story of other young people at the UN over the past 30 years.

I shall probably continue with other research at UNITAR following the completion of this project by spring 1979. A highlight of the International Youth year will be a reconvening of the UN Youth Assembly similar to that held in New York in 1970, which was attended by 700 delegates. The venue for the 1980 Youth Assembly will be the newly-built UN Danube Park buildings in Vienna.

Peggy Volkov

16 September, 1899—8 August 1973.

(née Marjorie Parkhurst Webb)

One time editor of the New Era.

An appreciation by her sister.

Peggy was quiet, with a beautiful low singing voice and could play the piano well enough to accompany herself or others. Quite young she was unusually responsive to other people and could laugh or weep with them, though she told me many years later that after Nick's defection in 1942 she had never cried again.

She loved the radio and listened a lot, not least to the Test matches. She had a good sense of humour and an occasional explosive laugh. Appreciating good food, good drink, good company, a poor man of any sort down to a king, and any infant, she listened to and where needed commented on the opinions of young and old alike.

She worked hard and studied the interest of all those for whom she was responsible whether as form mistress, parent, employer or colleague. She had a retentive memory and could relate ideas culled from one context to the problems of another. In the words of Martin Luther King she had — a tough mind and a tender heart.

Always an avid reader from the days when she learnt on Peter Rabbit, she had the run of all the many books in the house but was not allowed to borrow from school mates so missed out on Angela Brazil, which accounted she said for the amount of trash she could stomach in later life.

Peggy was educated at home until she was nine and then at Clifton High School, Bristol whither she walked daily from the neighbouring village of Westbury-on-Trym. In 1909 we "moved house into Clifton/ got many a lift on/ the back of a cart." (Our favoured method of quicker travel at this time being to hold on to the back of an unsuspecting bakers or other cart, and run).

It was also in 1909 that Noël was sent away to prep school. He, our only brother was born July 25 1901 and when Peggy saw him sucking away at his mother's breast she said, "Baby b(r)udder, no eat mudder" and then to get her Mother up and out into the garden "Bop(walk) Mudder, 'n pick woses."

But it was my birth on March 31 1904 and the few weeks immediately before it that started her conscious and remembered life. She was north at the time acting bridesmaid to Mother's oldest sister and while at Stanbeck made great friends with our huge bearded Northumbrian grandfather Potts who struck fear into the hearts of the rest of us but was to her always interest and delight. He was a land agent to the Curwen estate at Workington, Cumberland. He talked with her, walked with her in the high woods, or showed her the pictures of flowers, trees, birds and insects in his beautiful library. Her youngest aunt tended her devotedly and her yet younger uncle (who had fetched her from Bristol) she had breakfast with and saw off up the hill on his way down town to the Iron Foundry.

Having been told on leaving that Noël's cradle was being prepared for a little stranger she returned to find me, "a queer little brat/hairy sleepy and screaming/ that's that."

From the age of eleven, learning on the steep pebbly beach at Seaton, Devon, she could swim and dive like a seal. Some five years later she fished up and saved the life of a stray girl who went under larking about and singing 'Peg o' my heart' and came round singing the same tune. The Lord Mayor of Bristol awarded the Royal Humane Society's certificate in the school hall.

The war years brought our young sister Frances, born August 20 1915, put Noël at Clifton College into khaki and puttees and made Peggy think of becoming a nurse. We also had to 'Eat less bread' and saw in the Christmas holidays of 1917 our first one and only Pantomime.

She went up to Cambridge in October 1918 all set to become a doctor of medicine, but finding that the first year syllabus was largely a repeat of her last year at school, switched to modern languages — French and Russian. She was lucky in her tutors and enjoyed college infinitely more than school.

Then she had two years in Paris gaining the Diplome of the Ecole des Langues Orientales and falling in love with France.

Back to Clifton to two years of very happy teaching and thence to a scholarship at Westfield College, London where she took a PhD, writing on the poetry of Tyutchev. Here she stayed with a Russian emigré family and married the elder son, a marriage equally deplored by Dad and by Nick's highly aristocratic mother. Our mother said, "If you are not telling your father, for heavens sake don't tell me", so of the family only I was present at the wedding in Kensington registry office, November 18 1927.

After seeing Nick through Cambridge, where he read Russian and geology, while she coached a few students and from knowing no Spanish translated Raphael Altamira's History of Spanish Civilization (pub. Constable 1930), they settled in London where she got the job of editing the New Era under Mrs Ensor. She was carrying Sophie (b. January 26 1933) at the time of the big Nice conference. Twin girls followed in 1938 which caused the move to Latimer House, Church Street, Chiswick — an address known to many NEF-ers by writing or visiting in the war and post-war years.

The children and their Russian nanny were evacuated to us in Wiltshire in 1939 and by 1940 Latimer was filled with Belgian women and their babies born and unborn, when Hitler set the Thames afire (from the neighbouring store of Cherry Blossom boot polish): the flames and smoke billowed over the church next door while Peg and Nick fled with their Belgians to the vaults of the brewery opposite. The marriage did not survive the war — a grief to which Peggy was never fully reconciled.

She knew and was interested in all her eight grandchildren but loved best Sophie's eldest, Tom.

A saying of hers in the first world war, "we are all cooped up in this rotten little world, for God's sake let's be kind to one another" has always stuck in my memory. She loved poetry and as a child used to make my flesh creep by intoning "I thank what gods may be/ That no life lasts for ever/ That dead men rise up never/ That even the weariest river winds somewhere safe to sea." But her favourite Christian line — learnt I think from the Anglican Franciscans whom she met up with by chance on her NEF voyage to Australia and India in 1959/60 — was "Come Lord Jesus be in me/ All that thou wouldst have me be." And of death she could say quite simply, "If Jesus wants me I'll be there."

Julia Webb (Doola).

WEF English Section (ENEF) News

A one day study conference, organized by the ENEF Council in association with the Scientific and Medical Network and the Human Development Trust, will be held on Saturday 6th May 1978 at the University of London, Institute of Education, Bedford Way WC1. The theme is '**Education — to what ends**'. Teachers, parents, teacher-educators, students and members of professions and services involved in education are invited.

The Conference continues the project initiated in 1977 by the associated bodies in London, Bristol, Canterbury, Liverpool & Newcastle, to extend the national educational Debate beyond the means to a consideration of the ends of education.

The education of the young, in schools, homes, and the community, is envisaged as a preparation for the whole of life, as an enterprise to be shared between the young and their mentors, and as involving a search for meaning and the discovery, or re-discovery, of values that give purpose and fulfilment to living.

Discussion will focus, though not exclusively, on the role of the school, bearing in mind that the school is the concern of many groups and interests.

The programme includes talks by Dr James Hemming (Perspectives for Modern Man) and Dr James Henderson (Education for Self Discovery). There will also be a panel discussion and meeting of centre organisers in the afternoon.

A Conference Guide with further details of the programme may be obtained from the Secretary, Raymond King, 2 Wilton Grove, New Malden, Surrey, England.

MICHAEL WRIGHT

WEF Indian Section News Report of activities for 1977

A Lecture Series and a symposium were organised. They included talks from Indian and visiting Australian speakers on various aspects of education.

Dr Madhuri Shah, International President, was invited on her return from Russia to speak on her experiences at the UNESCO Intergovernmental Conference on Environmental Education, held at Tbilisi (USSR) in October 1977.

The Symposium on Freedom in Education, held in December 1977 was inaugurated by Dr Madhuri Shah and Prof. Ram Joshi (Vice-Chancellor of Bombay University) presided over the function.

Topics included Freedom in Administration, Framing and Implementing Curriculum and Parents Views on Freedom in Education.

Dr K. C. Vyas, Secretary of the World Education Fellowship participated in the Symposium on Freedom in Education organised by the Versova Welfare Associations' High School to help Headmasters introduce new innovations in Administration, Methodology of Teaching, Organising of Creative activities.

A visit of Executive Members and Principals of some schools was arranged on 6th September with a view to exchange educational ideas and to spend a day in Smt. Sulochanadevi Singhanie School, Thana. It's one of the Progressive Schools.

DR K. C. VYAS

WEF United States Section News

One of the aims of the WEF US Section has been to develop closer ties with other local, national, and international organizations with similar goals so that in our joint programs and activities duplication of efforts would be avoided. Together we can take bold steps toward resolving the many common problems facing our society and education today and to provide greater visibility for WEF. Towards this aim several workshops and panels have been planned, conducted, and sponsored jointly with other organizations. The panel on **Parenting in a Heterogenous Society** to be presented at the Annual Convention of the Comparative International Education Society to be held in Mexico City on March 14-17 is an example. The Panelists Nasrine Adibe, Frank Stone, and Glen Atkins are WEF members. Two other workshops planned jointly with other organizations to be presented at the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development annual meeting in San Francisco on March 4-8 1978.

A large part of the US Section time has been taken by preparations for the WEF International Conference.

Boston Chapter

Besides the regular Chapter meetings, the Boston Chapter under the leadership of Lena Foster and Ed Klugman is planning a program on Early Childhood and Art component for the 1978 WEF Conference in Michigan.

Chicago Chapter

The Chicago Chapter, under the leadership of Leonie Bergen, are proud to announce the award received by Dr John Eddy, of the School of Education of Loyola University. Active in peace education and author of many books on the topic, he was honored at the APGA American Personnel and Guidance Association for being the first recipient of the Kathleen Wrenn Humanitarian and Caring Person Award.

Connecticut Chapter

Besides the many ethnic and intercultural meetings the Connecticut Chapter has been sponsoring, its President, Frank Stone has been active in representing WEF at the Comparative International Education Society CIES. Frank Stone, together with Nasrine Adibe, have organized a panel on 'Parenting in a Heterogenous Society' at the Annual Conference of the CIES in Mexico City.

During Tony Weaver's visit to USA several WEF members were involved in assisting him with arrangements to meet various school officials and visit different schools in Mt. Kisco, Boston and Washington.

In New York, Tony was invited to spend a day at the Lakeville Elementary School in Great Neck, Long Island, Mrs Faith Marshal, the Principal of the School and Long-standing WEF member has had broad experience in involving the community in a positive way. Her human approach to education penetrates into many excellent activities of the school. This is the school where Bill Toto, the Treasurer of the US Section is teaching. Tony also had lunch with Nasrine Adibe and Dean Helene Green, Dean of the School of Education at CW Post Center of Long Island University.

The Great Lakes Chapter

Since the 1978 WEF International Conference is taking place in Ypsilanti, Michigan, the Great Lakes Chapter has been busy preparing for the International Conference.

NASRINE ADIBE

USA hosts WEF 1978 International Conference

Lisle Crawford, Detroit, USA

The first WEF International Conference to be held in the USA will take place on the campus of Eastern Michigan University (near Detroit) on August 15-21. This world-wide gathering of educators is designed as both a sharing of fellowship and a professional working conference with the theme:- **'Learning to become a Person in an Interdependent World'**.

By focusing on the **basic purposes** of education in all cultures at this time, the conference opens up the insights and experiences of all participants as resources which a conferee may draw upon in dealing with his or her own educational problems. In addition, the program is planned to make the unique and relevant resources of the surrounding industrial and cultural life available to conferees.

Orchestration of program components

Dr Samuel Everett, program chairperson, describes the orchestration of the program components in this overview of the conference:

In morning sessions of the conference, basic social and educational questions will be raised. Conference members will meet in plenary session at this time. Following the plenary session, conferees will meet in small discussion groups to consider the type of community life and education required in order that children, youth and adults live satisfying and effective lives.

In the afternoon, conference members will meet in topical workshop groups to develop strategies for change. Each topical workshop is scheduled for four sessions.

A **working** conference is proposed, one in which participants are encouraged to make plans to move into action following the conference; plans that can be used in schools, colleges and civic groups in home communities.

Distinguished WEF educators will address plenary sessions on such matters as 'The Person in the World' and 'The Modern Technological World'. A Look at 'What Industrialism Does To and For People' will include an exploratory field trip through part of the vast industrial complex of Detroit. A panel of students and teachers from different countries will address a plenary session on 'Educational Issues and Problems' as they see them.

Internationally recognized authorities will lead workshops dealing with such topics as 'Curriculum with a Global Perspective', 'Early Childhood Education', 'An International Youth Forum', 'Environmental Education', 'School and Community Relationships', 'Education in Cuba and in the People's Republic of China', 'Education for Peace', and 'Multi-Cultural Education'.

There are two special features of this conference: 1) through prior arrangements, university graduate and undergraduate credit may be made available to full-time conference participants; 2) informal visits (cottage meetings) in the homes of local WEF members can be arranged.

Special efforts have been made to keep conference costs low enough to encourage attendance by students and others on limited personal budgets.* In addition, there will be some housing accommodations available with local WEF members. Applicants interested in any of these special arrangements for the conference, should indicate their concern on their application forms, and notify Mrs Alice Brown, WEF Conference Treasurer, 802 Barrington; Grosse Pointe Park, Michigan 48230, USA.

The theme of the Conference

In determining the theme for the 1978 International Conference, the Program Committee developed the following rationale.

For all peoples on this globe, both young and old, the decades immediately ahead will continue to throw up crisis after crisis, as population overtakes resources and overpopulation and over-use denude the world of

its riches.

The alternative to such exploitations, want and stress is a compassionate and cooperative world; one which is organized on the principle that the earth and all its life come first — which means for all peoples their right to self-actualization as human beings.

To achieve this, each individual has **to have** certain material necessities, as well as certain controls over life in order **to become** a more fully self-actualizing person.

Each society, each culture, has its own organized ways — formal and informal education — through which individuals proceed in order to attain some measure of what each person has **to have** and can **become**.

Each person is **dependent** upon others for certain necessities, for gaining some control over life, and for learning the values that guide self-actualization.

In short, we have the boundless and un-actualized potentials of human beings, a vital but ignored interdependence, and a beautiful but betrayed environment in which to live. How we learn to cope with these awesome responsibilities and opportunities are functions of the education process. At our own individual and collective peril we human beings continue to ignore and flout these opportunities and responsibilities.

This international working conference proposes to confront these basic world education purposes in light of present realities. We seek to determine 'where we are at' in our native and world scenes, where we need to go, and what we are actually doing to get there. We plan to prepare guideline proposals for ourselves and our respective education systems to implement in an interdependent world.

*See back cover for costs and fees of Conference.—Ed.

UNIVERSITY OF LONDON GOLDSMITH'S COLLEGE

NEW CROSS, LONDON SE14 6NW, ENGLAND

PUBLICATIONS SERVICE

The College's Publications Service was created in 1966 in response to an ever-growing demand for works emanating from the Curriculum Laboratory. Central to this enterprise was the curriculum journal IDEAS, the first issue of which appeared in February 1967.

In order to emphasise the notion of 'service' the policy of the College was to maintain in print the increasing number of publications it produced; and the Publications Service is still able to draw from its stock of books an almost complete range of the reports, magazines and journals it has published over the years. In addition, because of the demand for bound volumes of the various series of IDEAS, Library Editions have been published as attractive books; and the complete set of the five series of this curriculum journal presents in six volumes and some 1½ million words a most revealing account of educational development during the past decade.

These six Library Editions of IDEAS covering series Nos. 1, 2 3A, 3B, 4 and 5 (i.e. IDEAS Nos. 1 to 33), are on sale at the inclusive price of £26. if mailed to an address in the British Isles. (An extra charge of £4.00 is made for mailing to places outside UK.) The final Library Edition of IDEAS embracing Nos. 31-33 also includes a comprehensive set of indexes covering all of the articles published within IDEAS Nos. 1 to 33.

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THE NEW ERA

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Internationalising the Curriculum

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Internationalising the Curriculum

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Editorial

This issue of **The New Era** is on a single, but mighty, theme. It is about the responses which schools can make, and are making, to certain new realities in human experience: the realities which are picked out by phrases such as spaceship earth, global village, world society, one world, interdependence, global system.

The first article, by Barbara Ward, is a wide overarching sweep of world history. The author takes in science and ethics, art and technology, past and future, politics and faith. Her discussion has implications for virtually all of a school's curriculum — clearly all the existing subjects and departments in a school have a response to make.

All the other articles, compared with Barbara Ward's opening, are very down-to-earth. They are all to do — though at different levels, and with different kinds of place in mind — with nuts and bolts, practicalities, lobbying and politicking, day-to-day routine.

Godfrey Brown discusses the responsibilities of governments, and of teachers' unions. His emphasis is that 'a global dimension for curriculum development is neither a luxury nor merely do-goodism. It is an element in survival. Not least, it is an element in the survival of the self-respect of the teaching profession.'

Certainly central governments and teachers' unions, and other educational administrators and decision-makers, have important roles to play. But clearly significant curriculum change depends not only on the allocation of appropriate financial resources. It depends also on the energy and commitment of individual teachers. This is vividly recalled in the three articles which follow.

David Selby and Hilary Cox outline their impressive plans for a new school in

Leicestershire. Hugh Starkey and his pupils at Ely describe their struggle to create a new course, with new methods as well as new content. Barbara Clark recalls and emphasises the point made also by Hugh Starkey: that to teach effectively about new realities — global village, interdependence, world society and so forth — involves changes in teaching style and teaching methods, not just changes in content.

Gajendra Verma and Kanka Mallick then provide a psychological analysis of self-respect. David Wright underlines the importance of giving teachers a chance to encounter at first hand another country and another culture. Margaret Quass recalls the role of supportive agencies, and the fine achievements of one of them.

Finally, a brief summary. Lee Anderson, a distinguished American specialist in this field, draws threads together from all the other articles. And in a kind of footnote Michael Wright and Nasrine Adibe, of the World Education Fellowship, emphasise the importance in all this of professional and personal contacts between educators in different countries.

The text is studded by some drawings by Fiona Bell Currie, who was also responsible for the cover. She reminds us of things which poor talkative words can all too easily miss, or blur, or blot out, but which curriculum change in international education, as of course in all education, cannot really ignore: intuition, ambiguity, mystery, struggle. To quote Hugh Starkey's pupils out of context, Fiona reminds us of 'things we never knew existed.' **The New Era** is grateful to her and — of course, and as always — to all its other contributors.

What is This Thing Called the World? — science and values on a small planet

Barbara Ward, Institute for Environment and Development, London

This article is based on a lecture which Barbara Ward gave at the Oxford Conference on Education in January 1978.

The article begins by recalling the spectacular achievements of science over the last four hundred years or so. Scientists have asked and successfully answered a whole series of 'how' questions — questions about how the world works. But they have not at the same time tackled 'why' questions — questions about why there is a world at all, and how human beings should behave in it. Yet in more recent years, argues Barbara Ward, science and ethics have been coming more closely together. It is not only sages and prophets but also scientists — particularly biologists and ecologists — who now maintain that life is 'based upon the infinitely small and vulnerable, and . . . demands care and restraint and respect and — yes — love, if it is to survive.'

Barbara Ward's discussion has far-reaching implications for the content and organisation of education. The article appears here as fascinating and important in its own right. Also, it is an invaluable introduction to all the other articles in this issue of *The New Era*, and depicts the wide and rich context in which they may be read.

Introduction

I should like to begin with a quotation from the great nineteenth century Danish philosopher, Kierkegaard — a quotation with which Fritz Schumacher introduced some of his reflections on education in **Small is Beautiful**. I know no more striking statement of the mixed sense of existential reality and utter bewilderment which every human being has the right to feel when confronting the fact of being here at all.

One sticks one's finger into the soil to tell by the smell what land one is in: I stick my finger into existence — it smells of nothing. Where am I? Who am I? How came I here? What is this thing called the world? What does this world mean? Who is it that has lured me into this thing and now leaves me there? . . . How did I come into the world? Why was I not consulted . . . but was thrust into the ranks as though I had been bought of a kidnapper, a dealer in souls? How did



I obtain an interest in this big enterprise they call reality? Why should I have an interest in it? Is it not a voluntary concern? And if I am compelled to take part in it, where is the director?

So there we are — landed here in what we must take to be reality but with clues or hints about its meaning which we can hardly piece together — and a growing modern suspicion that 'meaning' is a meaningless word. As Bertrand Russell maintained, there can be no meaning for 'accidental collocations of atoms' and if that is all we are, he argues the only honest basis for life is courageous and unyielding despair.

So what are we? How did we become what we are — whatever that is? And why, in the name of all things remarkable, has anything happened at all?

We can, of course, avoid such ideas. We need not think at all. We can concentrate on that holiday in Bermuda that we 'owe ourselves' or that latest perfume that will bring every aspirant to our feet. But probably we shall, at various crises in our life, come round to thinking about some purpose or direction — or lack of it — in our existence. Then, as Schumacher points out, we shall tend to think in terms of preconceived ideas which will not strike us as ideas because in fact they are habits. We hardly think about our eyes when we are seeing things. Yet they are the means of our vision (and sometimes we can see double). Similarly our 'received ideas' determine most of our thinking. If you take our contemporary society, I think it fair to say that we are the heirs of over three centuries of increasing absorption in the 'how' of reality, coupled with increasingly dim or casual or derivative views of the 'why'.

Scientific discovery

It is easy to understand this bias. We have just lived through the most triumphant period of scientific and historical discovery known to the human record. We have never — not even in comparison with those supremely inventive creatures, Neolithic men and women — learnt so much so quickly and in such depth about the material aspects of the universe and about the particular historical development of man in the midst of his small planetary post in that universe.

The time since Bacon and Descartes has been a sort of sunburst of discovery. Bacon first caught the glimpse of science's potential role as tool and instrument for 'the use and betterment of man's estate'. Descartes saw that if the continuum of reality could be broken up into 'discrete particulars', they could be grasped and repeated and that by experiment man would come to understand the nature and working of all natural objects — from ants to elephants, from atoms to galaxies. And once understood and mastered, they could fulfil the Baconian dream of being useful to mankind.

The degree to which these visions did in fact lead to new mastery led to a second profound conviction or shaping idea — that man's life on earth would be, if not improperly interfered with, one of steadily evolving material progress in which each generation would build and improve on the efforts of the past. The digging up all round the world of past civilisations (some of them of considerable material sophistication) did not dampen this optimism. Their rise and fall seemed less important than what was seen to be later giant strides forward in discovery and material innovation; their collapse even enhanced the 18th and 19th century conviction of certain 'progress'.

By the 19th century, whole philosophies — the 'whys' of life — began to be built on the 'hows'. Marx saw inevitable progress to Utopia in the abolition of property, which passing from slavery to feudalism to capitalism and socialism would end in perfect justice and equality. He placed all evil on property, forgetting power, that most potent agent of what I would call, for its sheer banality, unoriginal sin. Also, by one of history's cosmic ironies, he took his ideas of the incorruptibility of the dispossessed straight from the Bible: 'He has put down the mighty from their seat and exalted them of low degree'. But then for all the 'progressive' form of his thought — the preconceived idea





again — he was in fact the last of the great Jewish prophets and is in the Jeremiah class.

At the same time, Darwin's incredible synthesis of his own and others' geological and naturalist discoveries led to the vision of evolution by natural selection, the 'fittest' surviving. This too validated the profound conviction of irreversible progress — and also a lot of extremely unattractive ideas about the necessity of force and competitive violence in order to survive at all.

And from this whole mood grew a third master idea. This is less easy to define and has been less generally held in a rigorous way. Yet it has dominated the subconscious thinking of millions. If science explains all phenomena, and if material evolution guarantees progress, then in a sense the two 'hows' add up to the 'why' — man exists to experience a full material utopia on this evolving planet and all other older 'whys' are simply the wish-fulfilments of a less knowledgeable and affluent age. Why worry about future paradise when you can get to Bermuda tomorrow?

So there we have three 'idées maitresses' of the centuries between the Renaissance and our own day — science as the tool of betterment, material progress as the certain outcome of evolution, and non-material aims, values and aspirations as simply the expressions or hangovers of pious hopes from pre-

scientific and pre-technological societies.

New perceptions

But, as Schumacher points out, there is not one of these preconceptions that can any longer be easily and comfortably accepted by modern man. The eye itself is changing. We are beginning to look at our planet and universe from new angles of vision and since, as Walter Bagehot once said, 'nothing is more painful to change than an idea', we are caught in a sense of unease and apprehension unequalled perhaps since the Reformation.

Science as the certain instrument of betterment? We think of the breeder reactor powered by a fuel of which a lump the size of an apple could give half the world lung cancer and which has a half life of 24,000 years. We think of the creation of compounds unknown in nature — for instance, some of the carbon-chlorine bonds which, concentrating up the food chains, destroy animal life, turn the eggshells of osprey to paper, end up in the fat of antartic penguins, and conceivably help to explain the pandemic growth of cancer in industrialised societies. We think of recombining the basic building blocks of life, DNA, and feel a certain sympathy with the Mayor of Cambridge, Massachusetts, who said: 'You can produce Franksteins if you must, but not in my city'.

Then take the belief in inevitable material progress. We are suddenly confronted with the fact that the world's population, which reached only half a billion by 1600 AD, is now over four billion and may well be six in twenty years time. Such a vast growth of people, consuming, wasting, polluting, demanding and moving about like, say, the Atlantic peoples, could extinguish a large range of resources for ever, pollute the oceans into stagnant ponds and put food supplies at general risk. Nor does the fact that 80 percent of material wealth today remains obstinately with 20 percent of the people — mainly us — give one a very secure feeling about the social stability of the next decades.

And this of course raises the third point — the ability of the material 'hows' to produce the answer to the 'why'. The socialist Utopias become Gulag Archipelagos. Adam Smith's

hidden hand ends in capitalist struggles which, in two world wars, decimated the sons of Europe one by one. Only the extraordinary post war bonanza of material growth based upon spendthrift energy expenditure with oil at a dollar a barrel has allowed us to keep the illusion going a little longer — with our cars, our convenience foods and (naturally) that holiday in Bermuda.

But now these material joys become precarious. The day turns cold. Is it dusk approaching? And what gives light when science, material resources and the assured achievement of earthly utopia all begin to fade away? Are we caught — between the renunciation of the rational hopes born of fantastic scientific discovery and historical research on the one hand and the blind sense of none of our 'hows' giving us the faintest clue to a 'why' on the other?

Are four hundred years of superb intellectual achievement of no value when, now at the bleak end of an aging century, we turn to 'reality' and find the answers all stained with risk and blood? Is this the dilemma of all who think or seek or try to teach? Could anything be nearer to Kierkegaard's cry of anguish and despair?

Two great strands of knowledge

But I believe, on the contrary, and in spite of the new uncertainty and pain of our questionings, that the last four hundred years of search and experiment and scholarship do not point to an inescapable collision between our 'hows' and our 'whys'. No — something much more stirring and even exhilarating is coming within our range of vision. It is that the painful divorce between how and why, between facts and values, between science and religion, between secular aims and ethical systems, may in part be ending precisely because of the scholarship and scientific research of which we are the heirs. I see this possibility in two great strands of knowledge which have only been fully unfolded to us in the last hundred years.

The first is historical — the vast new understanding we have gained of the civilisations which have risen and fallen on the wheel of human history. The second is the extension of science to grasp more and more of the

exact nature of material things and their evolution, their interdependence, their diversity and fragility. Two great fields of human knowledge — of the 'how' of our development — appear to me to be pointing to the same kind of 'why'. In doing so they are restoring to our society what no civilisation in the past has ever lacked — its values, its ethical purpose, or to use Erik Erikson's moving phrase, its sense of 'the Sacred Order'.

Take first the cultural history of our attempts at civilisation. From the first days of Sumeria and the invention of the city, the need to bring together men and women of different clans, tribes and races in new large mixed communities led, internally, to the glorification of kingship as a centre of loyalty and the multiplication of power-wielding bureaucracies as a means of imposing order. And this combination, in its external relations, turned out to be the recipe for competitive struggle and war, first between cities, then between states and empires. It is difficult to exaggerate the horrors of this cycle of aggression unleashed by man — a still unfinished cycle? But perhaps my unfavourite vignette is that of Assurbanipal, King of the Assyrians, having a picnic with his wife under a tree from which hangs the severed head of the defeated King of Elam.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE

This issue of **The New Era** is the one current at the time of the World Education Fellowship's international conference at Eastern Michigan University, Ypsilanti, 15-21 August 1978.

The conference is entitled **Learning to Become a Person in an Interdependent World**, and includes workshops on environmental education, peace studies, internationalism and children's literature, school and community, bilingual multicultural education, education in Cuba, and curriculum with a global perspective.

Further information is available from Professor Nasrine Adibe, 41 Mist Lane, Westbury, NY 11590, USA.

Paradox

But then comes the paradox. It was precisely in the midst of the rise and fall of these violent systems that, all round the 'civilised' world, the voices of sages, saints and prophets were raised to say, in essence, that these ways of violence, aggression, personal aggrandisement and frenetic greed always would lead to disaster. Such excesses contradicted the fundamental laws and needs of human living — which are community, restraint, modest claims on life and the ability to see in other human beings other 'selves' with the same needs that we feel within our own minds and hearts.

'Do as you would be done by' is only a homely version of the sublime 'Love your neighbour as yourself' and these insights into the basic nature of man's existence — the fundamental values of social order, the why of our human condition — were not pie in the sky, nor even commandments of stone. They could almost be said to be scientific in that they represented man's whole concrete experience of the consequences of aggression, self-assertion, greed and butchery, and the equal experience that these horrors of human behaviour do not work and have within them what we should now no doubt call a self-destruct mechanism.

Whether it is Lao Tzu, Confucius and Mencius in China's long and terrible civil wars, or the Upanishads and the Lord Buddha during the invasions and wars of Northern India, or the Jewish prophets among a people tossed from imperialism to imperialism, or Greek philosophers caught in the rivalry of Athens and Sparta, or Christ killed like a slave in the high and palmy state of Roman power — with disgraceful imperial decline not more than two or three centuries distant — the ethics they teach us do not change. They cannot change. Aggression and greed do not work.

The Sacred Order is not an abstraction, but is lived to the utmost in the historical experience of every civilisation. And where it is most lacking — as with, say, the Assyrians or Ghengis Khan — the whole historical episode sinks into nothingness for it is chiefly by their 'sacred works' that any traces of civilisation survive.

Scientific research

Our insights have been equally enriched by the development of our scientific research. On the one hand, it is true, we have the vision of overwhelming power — the primal explosion ten billion years ago scattering 1000 billion stars round 100 million galaxies, some of them 100,000 times more powerful than our own sun by which all life on this planet in our small corner of the Milky Way is sustained. For the explosion itself set in motion the chain reaction of hydrogen and helium and began to fling off — since energy is matter's mass multiplied by the speed of light squared — the four million tons of energy from the sun which every second pervades our solar system, and powers every living thing.

All this seems to be on what you might call the Ghengis Khan side of material reality, the flood of almost incomprehensible and seemingly destructive energy upon which nonetheless, by a paradox, our delicate life depends. But what modern science has deciphered — rather like the archaeologists and historians deciphering the evidence of records and ruins — is on the contrary, particularly in the biological sciences, that this power is only a part of the equation.

Only when oceans filled up and provided a shield from the sun's searing radiation could organic life begin to form from infinitely minute and complex molecules ('organic', it should be understood, always includes carbon). Then photosynthesis, in minute phytoplankton, started to build up the concentration of atmospheric oxygen and the ozone layer which, by excluding the sun's lethal ultra-violet rays, mediated the sun's energy in such a way that it could support the further development of organic life, first in the seas and estuaries and then on land, with the movement of animal and vegetable life to the once bare rock.

The power that sustains life may be overwhelming. But organic life itself is a thing of the utmost vulnerability and delicacy. Life first developing within the protection of the oceans, plants increasing the atmospheric shield through photosynthesis, animals protected by the care of parents and pack, the

new-born child — wherever we look, life itself, in scientific terms, is based upon the infinitely small and vulnerable and, for all its toughness, demands care and restraint and respect and — yes — love, if it is to survive.

From the first desert created by careless farming to the last accidental explosion of nuclear wastes in the Soviet Union, the lesson is the same. Only with the utmost care and understanding and modesty of purpose can the experiment of organic life continue. The how and the why in science, as in history, are coming together, and both teach the same lesson. Thrift, conservation, ungreediness, the acceptance and care of other life-systems and other selves are the precondition of survival itself. The Sacred Order cannot be mocked. It is the very nature of reality.

New guides to survival

There are thus new guides to survival in our own day and perhaps a truce to the sterile debate between the scientific and ethical systems. An end to aggression between states and controlled disarmament, a sharing of planetary resources with greater justice for all those billions of other selves who live in desperate poverty, care and conservation instead of the throw-away economy, the personal dedication of citizens, particularly affluent citizens, to a philosophy of restraint, conservation and sharing, the utmost vigilance in all the big-bang technologies — nuclear power, chemical transformations — banning the totally unacceptable experiments such as basing power systems on lethal carcinogenic plutonium with a half life of 24,000 years — all these things follow from our new insights into the nature — the how — of reality. All reinforce our new understanding that the 'hows' reecho the saints' and sages' vision of the fundamental 'why'.

It is for this reason that in one sense there is nothing very new to say about the 'why'. We have always known that man cannot live without the Good, the Beautiful and the True. What we have learnt in our own day is that the supposedly rationalistic and materialistic systems and experiments of the last 400 years end by saying exactly the same thing. Today from both our scientists and from our philoso-

phers our new society — which must be a conserving and caring society — receives a common lesson. In the words of W. H. Auden, 'We must love each other or we must die'.

BARBARA WARD

Dame Barbara Ward, created Baroness Jackson of Lodsworth in 1976, is president of the Institute for Environment and Development, London. She was a visiting scholar at Harvard University, 1957-68, and Schweitzer professor of international economic development, Columbia University, 1968-73. Her many books on world affairs include *The International Share-Out* (1938), *Faith and Freedom* (1954), *Five Ideas that Change the World* (1959), *Spaceship Earth* (1966), *Only One Earth* (1972) and *The Home of Man* (1976).



International Understanding & National Inertia — a curriculum reform which hasn't happened

Godfrey N. Brown, University of Keele, UK

In 1974 Unesco adopted the 'Recommendation on Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms'. The cumbersome phrasing reflects the complexity of the issues involved.

Professor Brown refers here to the Unesco Recommendation and also the response to it of British officialdom — or rather, he might say, the non-response. He refers also to the declaration on 'Education for a Global Community' adopted by teachers' unions and associations in 1976, and suggests that the time has come for teachers in this field to apply appropriate professional measures. As an example, he discusses an international approach to unemployment amongst teachers in Western countries.

The article closes with a plea for 'a realistic and reasonable mix of altruism and selfishness': 'a global dimension for curriculum development is neither a luxury nor merely a do-goodism. It is an element in survival. Not least, it is an element in the survival of the self-respect of the teaching profession, which is in danger of being lost.'

Introduction: the challenge of Sputnik

Probably the most significant event in the history of Western education in the post war period was the successful launching of Sputnik in 1957. It led the Americans to question the whole basis of their educational programmes. Such curriculum innovations as the Physical Science Study Committee (PSSC), the School Mathematics Study Group (MSG) and Man, A Course of Study (MACOS) resulted.

And what the Americans had done served to inspire the British to curriculum reform. Hence the Schools Council was established in 1964, and soon the British too were talking about the New Maths and new approaches to all the subjects of the traditional curriculum. And where the high income countries had led the way, the developing countries were soon to follow. 'Experts' retailed curricular designs to the Africans and the Asians in a manner which sounded impressive but which too often failed to take into account the realities of the environment for which they



were designed. Sputnik gave impetus to a world race for curriculum development.

It did so, of course, because Sputnik was seen as a threat that had to be counteracted. Sputnik was launched during the Cold War.

How differently, however, the Sputnik experience might have been interpreted. Sputnik for the first time enabled man fully to encompass the earth. From Sputnik one could see the earth; man could circumnavigate it in as many minutes as it had previously taken weeks and months. There was the earth, one could see it whole in photographs, one could take it in at a glance.

Sputnik might have been seen as a great human achievement rather than as a great Soviet achievement. It might have sparked off a great exercise in world education rather than a competition between super powers in the exploration of outer space and in the 'educational' provision implicit in this objective. It might have brought the world closer to itself . . . but it succeeded instead in bringing the moon closer. 'The great step for man-

kind' was a lunar one: for all the good it did for the majority of mankind it was a non-event.

The missed opportunity occurred because the political, social, economic and educational climate was such that virtually nobody saw Sputnik as an incentive for world educational cooperation rather than as a motif for inter-national curricular competition.

The Unesco Recommendation

Twenty years later there can be little cause for congratulation that the missed opportunity has been redeemed. It is true that in 1974 the General Conference of UNESCO adopted the recommendation on education for international understanding and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms. But one wonders what percentage of the teachers have heard of it much less done anything about it. The Department of Education and Science in London, and the Welsh Office and the Scottish Office have heard of it, of course. They have indeed issued a bland circular about it which fulfils national obligations whilst committing officialdom to doing as little as possible. The salient paragraphs of the circular read as follows:-

The Recommendation spells out a variety of ways in which educational authorities and institutions can promote education for international understanding, cooperation and peace and education relating to human rights and fundamental freedoms. **The Secretaries of State attach importance to the message of the recommendation having the widest possible dissemination and impact** and look to all those to whom this circular is addressed to consider the best ways in which, in their local circumstances, the recommendation can be used. In due course the United Kingdom will be required to report to UNESCO on the measures which it has taken to implement the recommendation. The Secretaries of State are confident that the response from this country will be shown to be both sympathetic and constructive.

The Secretaries of State appreciate that, in the present economic circumstances, authorities and others to whom this circular is addressed will need to consider with

special care the extent to which the implementation of the recommendation is likely to make demands on resources of manpower, equipment and money. Given the extent to which schools and other educational institutions are already accustomed to giving some place in their curriculum and other activities to education for international understanding and related subjects, the Secretaries of State are confident that genuine progress in implementing the recommendation can be achieved by the adaptation of existing resources without creating demands for new ones.

(DES Circular 9/76)

Local authorities beset by financial difficulties and colleges of education immersed in plans for reorganisation might be forgiven for seeing the circular as yet another non-event.

I have no doubt, however, that the UK will be able to put to UNESCO a report on what has been done to implement the recommendation. It will be able to use initials to indicate initiatives in an impressive fashion. To long-standing bodies like the Council for Education in World Citizenship (CEWC) there has been added the Centre for World Development Education (CWDE), the World Studies Project of the One World Trust (OWT), the Transcultural Teacher Education Project (TTEP) of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction (WCCI), the Associated Schools Project for International Cooperation and Peace (ASPRO), the World Education Fellowship (WEF), the work of the Ministry of Overseas Development (ODM), the European Economic Community (EEC), Oxfam, and recently there has been established the World Studies Teacher Education Group. And this certainly does not exhaust the list even if it may exhaust the reader.

This 'alphabet soup' does of course, have some 'meat' in it. One thinks of the work that is being done to promote multicultural education, the increase in European Studies (sometimes, however, in filling in the time-table for non-academic children in a comprehensive school), school parties visiting the Commonwealth Institute, the excision from textbooks of prejudices and stereotypes, and the concern that many young people show to help those who are less fortunate overseas.

Small minority

But the truth behind activities of this kind and of the proliferating initials of organisations is surely not, however, that there is a large body of teachers concerned to ensure that a world dimension is given to curricula in the educational institutions of the UK. It is that there is a very small minority of individuals who are doing their best against all the odds to promote causes in which they believe. Phrases like giving 'a global dimension to the curriculum', 'world studies', 'trans-cultural education', evoke but little recognition in terms of teacher educators, teachers, examination syllabuses, and educational administrators.

Even where concern is expressed about these matters, the action that is taken is frequently a mere palliative — the introduction of an optional course in some form of area study, for example, or the insertion of a project on a 'world' theme such as the population explosion, food and famine, etc. Such work is frequently welcomed by the students who experience it as having greater relevance to life than the more orthodox time-table, but inevitably it is something of an eight days wonder. Few students looking back on the course that they have taken would be likely to see it as equipping them to live in the contemporary much less the future world.

Despite the increase in 'world-oriented' organisations, it is striking that the once exceedingly popular Christmas holiday lectures of the CEWC no longer attract young people in the numbers that they did twenty-five years ago; that the numbers studying foreign languages in an effective way have declined as the modern language departments of the universities can attest; that young people spending extended periods overseas have not increased in number; that teacher exchanges have scarcely grown; that work camps to help others overseas seem almost a thing of the past; that overseas students pay higher fees than native students; that the curriculum of many schools still has an almost indelibly national imprint; that some worthwhile initiatives in teacher education may disappear as the result of reorganisation; and so on. In such circumstances it is not surprising that the UK pays no more than lip

service to UNESCO recommendations, and that it fails to meet UN recommendations in respect of development aid. No political party is willing to commit hari-kari by espousing a programme of world altruism.

Creatures and creators

Above I have indicated the way that I would put together the balance sheet of world-oriented educational activities in the UK. Others would include other matters and possibly interpret some of my data differently. But, however various the balance sheets resulting, I suspect that all have one feature in common: teachers have been much more the creatures of what has happened than the creators. Education may have proposed but it has been Economics and Politics that have disposed. Progress since Sputnik has been made at a walking pace.

Is the future prospect bleak then? Probably yes but possibly no. It will be bleak if those who care go on in the manner that they have adopted hitherto. It may not be if there is fundamental recasting of philosophy.

First, I think that those who care have got to stop being such thoroughly pleasant liberal minded people — at least in their contacts with officialdom. Bureaucracies do not react to pleasant people, they react to pressures. There is no need for those concerned with giving the curriculum a world dimension to espouse radical political or violent solutions — to do so would be to negate genuinely educational purposes, and would be essentially counter-productive. There is a need, however, for people to say loud and clear that the UK, as a comparatively high income country, could do much more than it is doing to educate its people in world developmental issues. As it is, as reported internationally, much of the UK's effort is little more than benevolently inspired window dressing.

Teachers have shown themselves ready enough to take industrial-type action in respect of their conditions of employment. One could wish that they were similarly concerned to promote better conditions of life for the population of the world at large, and genuinely concerned to implement the responsibilities that this entails for educationists in high income countries.

In appropriate bodies teachers do make appropriate noises. Thus the World Confederation of Organisations of the Teaching Profession, meeting in Washington, DC in the Summer of 1976, adopted a resolution concerning Education for a Global Community. Amongst other things this recommended that all teachers should 'encourage open discussion which allows students to develop a respect for all human beings; promote the concept of a global community by including in all curricular development where possible appreciation of diverse cultures; and assist young people toward comprehending their responsibilities with regard to the interdependence of individuals and groups of all nations'.

It is difficult to see teachers' unions being prepared to undertake industrial-type action in respect of non-fulfilment of this resolution. And, in all fairness, it is difficult to see those who are really concerned to see the resolution put into effect doing much to influence the unions on the issue. Yet one suspects that some teachers could do more than they are doing. Surely it should be possible and desirable for teachers to discuss the WCOTP recommendation and its implications with classes of older pupils. How many, one wonders, have done so? And if this kind of thinking does not inform the teaching in educational institutions, is it to be wondered at that public opinion accords world issues so low a priority?

Applying appropriate professional pressures seems to me to be the stage to which the world studies movement has now come. This means exploiting vigorously every opportunity for influencing education, formal, non-formal and informal alike, to recognise that being concerned with national sovereignty or regional political or economic groupings is not enough.

Employment of teachers

To give but one example — we are constantly told that the decline in the birthrate in the UK has resulted in the over-supply of teachers. Yet there are few voices that go on record as pointing out this is simply not true if one has regard to the needs of the world as a whole. Developing countries con-

tinue to be characterised by (a) a high birth-rate and (b) inadequate resources for meeting the needs of a static, much less an increasing, population. To talk of an over-supply of teachers, therefore, is to betray the national limitations of one's outlook. Why don't DES, ODM and interested overseas government representatives get together to seek to employ British young teachers overseas for the common good?

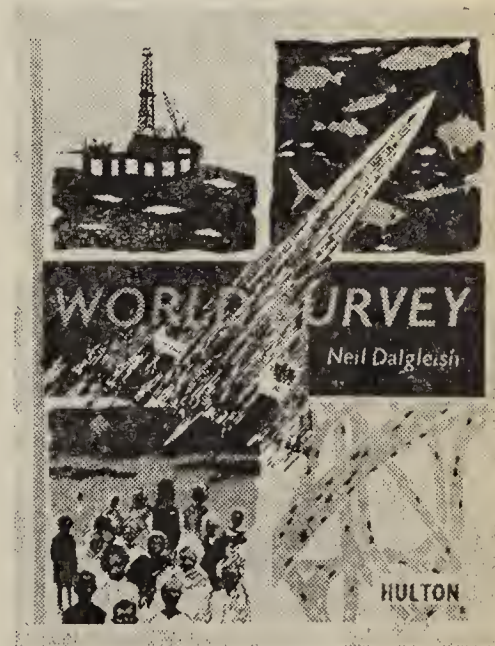
Admittedly, there will be unemployed qualified teachers who may not be suitable for work in the developing countries of the world. Admittedly, too, there will be developing countries who might have misgivings about employing young expatriate staff even if qualified. One sympathises with Julius Nyerere's comment that people develop themselves, they cannot be developed. At the same time there is surely an appalling waste of people and opportunity in paying newly qualified teachers social security benefits to do nothing when there are millions of children and adults condemned to lives of illiter-

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acy. By tackling unemployed school teachers and uneducated people together, within an international framework, it should surely not be too taxing to solve two problems which, treated apart, might be insoluble.

I am aware of the difficulties that might be involved, not least from the point of view of the developing countries, where the view that Britain was exporting its unemployment problem might be expressed. At the same time, making available to developing countries able, qualified teachers, together with the social security payments that they might have received had they remained unemployed in the UK, and using such people at institutions carefully selected by the developing countries themselves, could be mutually advantageous. When such teachers returned home they would themselves be in a particularly good position for promoting a world dimension in and through their teaching. I would hypothesize that a very common element in those educators who show such concern is that they have experienced immersion in a culture other than their own.

International networks

This reinforces another point that is worth making if World Studies are to be taken seriously: a global dimension cannot be gained by taking a national look at the globe; international education needs to be studied and promoted internationally. This has been basic to the thinking of such bodies as the World Education Fellowship (and its predecessor the New Education Fellowship), and to the WCCI and UNESCO, but apart from conferences, the monitoring of textbooks and other incidental matters, the broad mass of those being educated throughout the world are unaware of the existence of such bodies.

We are in the process of developing active networks of like-minded, world-minded educators but frequently only within a national context. Every opportunity should be taken to ensure ongoing programmes of world and international studies involving teachers and taught in other countries. It is ironic that the excellent study of International Educational Achievement (IEA) did not examine international education in the sense in which this

is used in the UNESCO recommendation of 1974.

Realism

If education is to be given a global perspective, then those who are concerned with it need to be more realistic than they have been hitherto. They need to recognise that 'the beginning of wisdom is the recognition that men's motives are mixed', and that provision of programmes incorporating a selfish element alongside an altruistic element is necessary. Had there been this kind of realism in 1973 the world recession, to which OPEC's action in dramatically increasing the price of oil contributed, might have been avoided.

The OPEC countries, the high income countries and the developing countries could have appreciated that selfishness was best served by altruistically arranging for the gradual increase in the price of oil to enable producers to have a fair share of the profits of their product, to permit high income countries to hammer out strategies for avoiding inflation and unemployment and, most importantly, to enable adequate provision to be made to help the developing countries to survive and to develop. OPEC's action might have been a salutary lesson in trying to achieve a realistic and reasonable mix of altruism and selfishness. There is little evidence that the lesson has been learned. Other primary producers may instead have learned that OPEC 'got away with it' as the result of concerted action and may, as a result, feel encouraged to follow the example set.

Nowhere is it more important that the appreciation of the issues of world development be encouraged than in the UK. Essentially this country which was once the centre of a world wide empire has been cut down to size; it is finding the process exceedingly uncomfortable. But much of the reaction is not concerned to understand what has happened and to make the necessary adjustments to outlook — to think like the people of Switzerland, say, rather than like the people of a super-power — but to ignore the realities of the situation, and to press on with educational processes that were not all that efficacious even in the past. Hence the call for

more industrial and commercial related education; hence the switching of resources from education to industrial training schemes; hence the widespread feeling that education has failed.

The truth is that, like Christianity, education has not so much been tried and found wanting but tried and found difficult. Present policies for maximising GNP are likely to be found just as difficult, for they lack the educational element which enables public opinion to understand the UK's changed and changing place in the world. Buildings erected on shifting sand do not survive for long.

The lesson, I suggest, is clear. A global dimension for curriculum development is neither a luxury nor merely a do-goodism. It is an element in survival. Not least, it is an

element in the survival of the self-respect of the teaching profession which is in danger of being lost. It is high time that an educational 'world' were put into orbit.

GODFREY BROWN

Since 1967 Godfrey Brown has been professor of education at the University of Keele Institute of Education, and its director. Previously he was a lecturer in education at the University College of Ghana, and professor of education at the University of Ibadan. He is the author of several books on African history, was chairman recently of the Association for Recurrent Education, and is on the executive committee and board of directors of the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction. His work with WCCI also includes being director and coordinator of the Transcultural Teacher Education Project, which involves the universities of Hong Kong, Ibadan, Indiana, and Keele.

CHRISTIAN AID SCHOOLS MATERIALS

Christian Aid, the overseas aid and development arm of the British Council of Churches, prepares material for use in school — leaflets, packs, assemblies and audio-visual material.

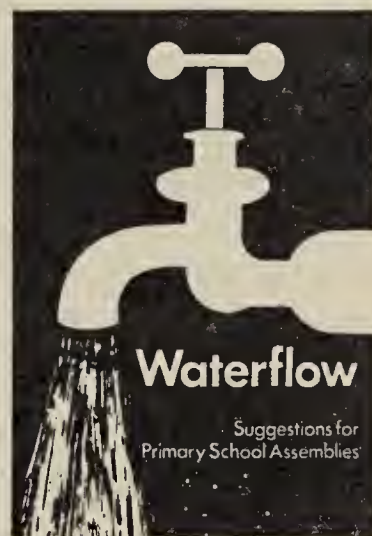
Junior

Caring leaflets: designed to help 7-11 year olds appreciate the international aspects of Aid, Food, Health, Homes, Dress, Transport, Children, Disaster. Set of 8, 7p each.

Secondary

Topic Sheets: Worksheets for 13-16 year olds on a wide range of issues. Titles range from 'Migrant Farm Workers in Bolivia' to 'Man's World, Women's Work'. 10p each.

Assemblies



Participatory services for use in Christian Aid Week, at Harvest time, or at any time of the year.

Junior titles: Waterflow, Harambee, Happiness is Fair Shares (harvest)
Secondary titles: Five Plus Two, Hope for Life, The Harvesters (harvest)

Audio-Visual Material

An extensive range of posters, films and filmstrips on many aspects of development . . .

Living City, a 30 minute colour film, shows how the people of Calcutta are working to overcome their problems. ' . . . A reminder of the old values that we have abandoned in our self-interested scramble for more' (Financial Times). The film **Indonesian Boomerang** asks important questions about how our affluent lifestyle must change if

there is to be justice for the Third World (27 minutes). In **Lalibai**, a 70 frame, 17 minute filmstrip an Indian village health worker describes her day to day activities and the changes in the village since a preventive health care programme was begun. **We are All in This Together** is a 61 frame, 20 minute filmstrip focusing on the inequalities of the present world trade system and how some developing countries are trying to change it. Fifth form upwards.

All materials and publications lists can be ordered from Films and Publications, Christian Aid, PO Box 1, London SW9 8BH.

Living and Learning in the Global Village — aims and plans at a new school

David Selby and Hilary Cox, Groby Community College, Leicestershire

This article is the main text of a paper recently submitted to, and approved by, the East Midlands Regional Examinations Board. It is reprinted here with grateful acknowledgement to the Board, and also to Groby College, whose copyright it remains.

Groby Community College is a new Leicestershire upper school for 14-18 year old students. In their first two years at Groby all students are to follow a core course in World Studies, starting in autumn 1978. The article which follows outlines the aims, rationale and content of this core course, and shows the scheme of assessment.

The course has many striking features. One of these, of particular interest to many readers of *The New Era*, is the clear evidence the course shows of having been influenced by the writings and work of James Henderson. Another is the emphasis on students being directly and personally involved in political or social action.

Readers will appreciate that the article is to do with aims and plans, not with actuality. David Selby and Hilary Cox are hoping and intending to write a further article for *The New Era*, for publication in late 1979, describing what actually happens.

The illustration on this page is from 'World Population Report', a booklet available from Population Concern, 27-35 Mortimer Street, London W1N 7RJ, price 25p.

Aims

The aims of this World Studies Syllabus are as follows:

1) To encourage students to set their thinking about the modern world within a global framework.

2) To foster amongst students an allegiance to mankind in general as against an allegiance to national, local or sectional interests.

3) To help students become aware of the widening gap between the richer and poorer countries, and of the consequences likely to follow if global inequalities are not remedied.

4) To encourage respect for cultural diversity.

5) To help students identify and respect those values shared by mankind in general.

These aims are discussed in the Rationale that follows.



Rationale

'Our society is a multicultural, multiracial one, and the curriculum should reflect a sympathetic understanding of the different cultures and races that now make up our society. We also live in a complex, interdependent world, and many of our problems in Britain require international solutions. The curriculum should therefore reflect our need to know about and understand other countries.' (1)

The basic premise of this syllabus is that there are certain definable problems of human organisation on this planet which can only be fully understood from a global point of view and which can only be treated on a global basis. Central to the syllabus is the concept of the 'global village', the word 'village' underlining the fact that the contemporary world is a single system with all its various parts interdependent. Developments of a social, political, economic, environmental or technological nature in any one quarter of the 'village' can have significant repercussions in many — possibly all — other quar-

ters.

'Viewed against a backdrop of the whole of man's history, the continuing transformation of the world from a collection of many lands and peoples to a system of many lands and peoples is a profound change in the human condition. The emergence of the contemporary world system carries with it far-reaching implications for the task of socialising and formally educating young people.' (2) In the first place, it becomes vitally important that students be introduced to a new framework within which to develop their thinking and loyalties. Students should be shown that they have a double allegiance — an allegiance to their own nation and people and an allegiance to mankind in general — and that where a conflict exists between the two, the larger loyalty subsumes the smaller.

On the opposite side of the same coin, the prospects for the future, should global loyalty not transcend national loyalty, need serious consideration. In the socio-economic sphere, it is becoming imperative that students be made aware of the fact that the world's wealth is not equitably distributed and that, unless a global strategy is evolved to remedy the inequalities existing, the 'global village' may well lurch from crisis to crisis in their lifetime and beyond.

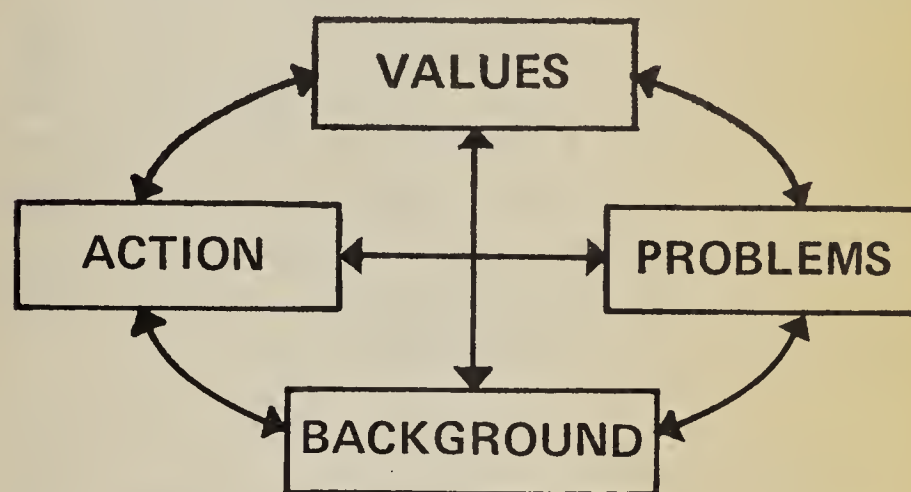
Finally, whilst making every effort to foster respect for cultural diversity, students should be encouraged to identify and respect those values shared by the whole species — the 'attitudinal glue', as it has been called, which can 'bind together the moral impulses necessary for human co-operation.' (3)

The 'global village' approach to studying the modern world (as against the 'places' and 'events' approaches common to Geography and Modern World History courses) presents problems in terms of syllabus construction in that it is, by definition, non-linear. To accept that the world is a single system with interdependent parts is to reject the notion that any particular problem, set as it is in time and place, can be understood by exclusive investigation of that one problem. Does 'Poverty in the Third World' go under the heading of 'Natural Resources', 'Overpopulation' or 'Global Inequalities' as a study topic? Is the remedy for Third World poverty

to be found in aid organisations and programmes, intermediate technology, population control, dismantling well-established trading systems or in a compound of these — and other — factors? Do we put Southern Africa in the conflict, human rights or race section of a syllabus?

Conceptual model

To extricate ourselves from the tangles and dilemmas raised by questions such as the above, we have adopted the useful conceptual model suggested by Robin Richardson for constructing World Studies syllabuses. (4)



The four concepts in the model are in themselves mutually dependent. A global problem is only perceived as such given certain values on the part of the beholder. Values, likewise, determine one's analysis of the underlying causes of a problem and one's decisions as to a particular course of action. Action (i.e. an attempt at tackling a problem) may well lead to a shift of values in the light of experience and to fresh insights into the problem and its underlying causes. From this central conceptual hub, Richardson has developed a 'World Study Topic Web', a diagram which maps out the field of World Studies as a school subject and which illustrates how closely interwoven are the topics likely to appear in a World Studies syllabus. (5)

In the syllabus that follows no attempt is made to draw attention to the many interconnections existing between the various topics listed. Nor is mention made of the ongoing interaction between background, problems, action and values which will be central to our classroom strategy. The listing of

topics is convenient but the reader should not be deceived into thinking that the teaching team will religiously follow the order as set down on paper.

When we look at Poverty (Section II, 2), for instance, we will also give some consideration to the 'North-South Conflict' (Section II, 4), to the work of the United Nations in combatting poverty (Section III, 2), to the work of aid organisations (Section III, 3), to 'dismantling structural violence' (Section III, 7) and to population control (Section III, 8) although all of these topics will be given fuller consideration later in the course. Our teaching, in other words, will involve an elaborate system of cross-referencing.

Nor will the locality of the school be overlooked as a resource. It is, clearly, the case that failure on our part to identify events and situations illustrative of the syllabus within the locality would tend to invalidate the very concept of a single world system upon which the syllabus has been built.

Grassroots action

Whilst Section I of the syllabus deals with background and Section II identifies the key problems, Sections III and IV are concerned with what has been described as 'action'. Broadly speaking 'action' can be taken at two levels; it can be taken at 'the top' by those involved in national government or in international organisations or it can be taken at the grass roots by individuals or small groups. Section III deals with the former type of action and Section IV with the latter.

Under Section IV students will be given the opportunity to involve themselves in a project at grass roots level. The experience they gain may be reported and analysed as their research project. Alternatively, they can choose a research project title from within the twelve study areas listed in Section V of the syllabus.

Finally, a word on content. The syllabus is all-embracing and it may be thought to be too full. It should, however, be pointed out that a case-study approach will be adopted to many of the topics listed. An exhaustive approach to each topic would be both unrealistic and counter-productive. Furthermore, it is worth mentioning — although it is a

point mentioned again later — that material for the final examination will only be selected from Sections I, II and III of the syllabus.

THE SYLLABUS

Section I: The Global Village

1. The term 'Global Village' introduced and explained.

2. Origins and Evolution (theories of the formation of the earth and of the structure of the earth's crust — plate tectonics and isostasy).

3. Sizes and Shapes (comparative study of differing size of land masses; the sea area and land area compared; the annihilation of distance with modern technologies and transport developments).

4. Climatic Zones

5. Natural Resources (including water) — their distribution and uses; the sea as a natural resource.

6. Human Resources (population figures, racial groupings).

7. Developed and developing countries; the Third World; the Fourth World — the terms introduced and explained (including basic facts).

Section II: The Global Village is a Village at Risk

1. Overpopulation.

2. Poverty and Affluence (including hunger and malnutrition; drought; the geography of world disease; the diseases of affluence and the diseases of poverty; incapacity in the face of natural disaster; illiteracy; the uneven distribution of wealth and income between the developed and underdeveloped worlds).

3. Conflict and Violence (including racial, religious and ideological conflict; war; the arms race; the threat of nuclear war; torture; refugees; conflict over the ownership of the sea bed).

4. Structural violence (oppression as perpetrated by organisations, governmental systems, trading systems and widely-held opinion which, in its effect, achieves the same end-result as actual physical violence). Apartheid in South Africa; the role of women in certain societies; minority groups in Central and East Africa, Russia, India, Sri Lanka and Canada; migrant workers in Europe and, most

importantly, the relationship between the 'rich world' and 'poor world' to be considered.

5. Reactive Violence (including anti-colonial movements; freedom fighting; terrorism; student and youth protest and, most important of all, the Third World response to structural violence as it has developed since the Oil Crisis of October 1973).

6. Destruction of the Environment (man's spoliation of the natural environment — pollution, resource depletion and misuse, the energy crisis, desertification and urbanisation).

Section III: Pointers Towards a Better World

1. Towards World Government and Co-operation (an outline history of world government theories and movements including the UN Charter for a World-elected Assembly; the emergence of political groupings transcending the nation state; international co-operation in weather prediction, communications and outer space).

2. The United Nations Organisation; its aims, history, work, structure and achievements; the aims, work and achievements of its specialised agencies (including FAO, ILO, UNESCO, UNICEF, UNHCR, UNRRA, UNRWA, WHO) and specific case studies of same.

3. Some other international bodies and their work (including the Red Cross, Christian Aid, IVS, Oxfam, Save the Children Fund, VSO and the World Council of Churches).

4. International Policing, Law and Security (including United Nations policing in Korea, Suez and Cyprus, Interpol, Extradition Agreements and the International Court of Justice).

5. Human Rights (including the Declaration of Human Rights, the Declaration of the Rights of the Child, the European Court of Human Rights, Amnesty International, the Carter Initiative).

6. Peacebuilding. Peace movements, arms control and disarmament.

7. Dismantling structural violence on a global scale: UNCTAD; its work and conferences; aid programmes, Intermediate Technology.

8. Population Control — some national and global strategies.

9. Alternative lifestyles and technologies.

10. Conservation.

Section IV: Involvement

'In a global age where worldwide interdependence makes itself felt in the daily lives of most human beings, it is critical that individuals learn how they might exercise some measure of control and influence over the public affairs of global society, as well as over the public affairs of their local communities and nations.' (6)

'We must encourage and assist our students in identifying their own value and action priorities in light of their concern about particular global issues. We must help them discover their own strengths and learn how they can be most effective. We must help each person find his or her entry point for action.' (7)

This section will involve an examination by students of how they, as individuals, can contribute meaningfully to the welfare of the Global Village. Included amongst the forms of involvement to be discussed will be:

1. The UNESCO Associated Schools and Colleges Project and how it can help the individual foster international understanding.

2. Community Relations work.

3. Participation at local, national and international level in the work of an international environmental organisation (e.g. Friends of the Earth).

4. Participation in the work of IVS, United Nations, Population Concern or a similar



body at local or national level.

5. Money-raising to help fight world poverty, hunger and disease.

6. Projects connected with the school such as school recycling projects or monitoring the school's use of energy and other resources.

7. Running a 'globally-conscious' home (conservation etc.) and 'globally-conscious' shopping.

8. Local projects involving experimentation with or development of alternative technologies.

9. a) A voice in local politics. b) A voice in national politics. What channels are open to the individual so he/she can make known his/her views concerning global issues?

10. A global problems and solutions publicity campaign in the locality.

After brief consideration of the above in class, students working individually or in groups will be invited to involve themselves in a local project of their choosing and, later, to write up their experience and conclusions as their research project.

Section V: Cohesive Forces within the Global Village

Those students choosing not to involve themselves in a project under Section IV will be asked to choose a research project title falling within one of the following areas:

1. Common factors in world beliefs and ideologies.

2. The universal appeal of sports, games and athletics.

3. Developments in the use of space.

4. The universal appeal of art, science, films, fashion, music, cookery or literature.

5. The study of an art form or craft of a particular country, culture or continent, with an examination of its wider influence and appeal.

6. Our concern to preserve the archaeological and architectural heritage of mankind.

7. Family, home life and children in particular parts of the world.

8. Travel, transport and tourism.

9. Communications systems and mass media.

10. World leaders (political, religious and cultural).

Objectives and Assessment

By the end of the two-year course the student should:

1. Be able to recognise and recall relevant information.

2. Have a knowledge of the key concepts in the syllabus.

3. Have given evidence that he/she can plan, organise and pursue independent enquiry.

4. Have shown that he/she can present the results of that enquiry, and other course work, clearly and accurately.

5. Have given evidence that he/she can explain in his/her own words the arguments surrounding current global issues and developments and can form his/her own judgement.

6. Be able to express his/her point of view clearly and accurately in speech.

These six objectives will be assessed through (1) course work; (2) a research project; (3) an oral examination; (4) two written examinations. The course work will constitute 20% of the overall assessment, the research project 30%, the oral examination 10%, and the written examinations 40%.

Assessment of Objective 1 (recognition and recall of relevant information) will constitute 22% of the overall assessment; of Objective 2 (knowledge of key concepts) also 22%; of Objective 3 (ability to plan and organise independent enquiry) 15%; of Objective 4 (presentation of results) 10%; of Objective 5 (ability to explain and form judgements) 25%; and of Objective 6 (ability to express views in speech) 16%.

Course work

Assessment of course work will be based on the standard of the student's ten best pieces of work, two arising out of Section I of the Syllabus, four out of Section II and four out of Section III. One 'piece of work' we define as being a relevant written response or written and graphic response to any part of the course or syllabus.

It might be an essay on a particular topic, a critical review of a film seen, a piece reflecting on ideas put forward by a visiting speaker, a story intended to highlight some aspect of a global issue, or it may take some

other form.

The course work will be assessed with regard to Objectives 2 (7 marks), 4 (5 marks) and 5 (8 marks).

Research project

A research project will be undertaken by each student. The project may be an account and analysis of practical work undertaken by the student following consideration of Section IV of the Syllabus. Alternatively, a title can be chosen from within one of the areas listed in Section V of the Syllabus.

Prior to commencing their project, students will be asked to prepare and present a 'plan of campaign' containing a project title, a description of how the project will be tackled, and an initial list of resources to be consulted. This plan of campaign will be incorporated into the project together with subsequent amendments made by the student in the light of ongoing research. Written work together with any illustrations, photographs, diagrams etc, will be presented bound in a folder.

The research project will be assessed with regard to Objectives 2 (3 marks), 3 (15 marks), 4 (5 marks) and 5 (7 marks).

Examinations

There will be an oral examination of not less than ten minutes on any three topics pre-selected by the student. This exam will assess Objectives 1 (2 marks), 2 (2 marks), and 6 (6 marks).

A written examination on sections I, II and III of the syllabus will be taken by students at the end of the course, and will consist of two papers.

Paper I, lasting $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours, will contain 50 questions requiring one or two-sentence answers and testing the candidate's ability to recall information (Objective 1). There will be 2 marks for each question, thus a possible total of 100 marks, to be scaled down to 20.

Paper II, lasting $1\frac{3}{4}$ hours plus 15 minutes reading time will contain three sections. The first section will require short paragraph answers and will test knowledge of key concepts (Objective 2); the second will consist of 10 questions requiring short answers based on stimulus documentary and/or visual material (Objective 5); the third will be a major es-

say question testing knowledge of key concepts (Objective 2), and the ability to explain the arguments surrounding current global issues and developments and the ability to form an independent judgement (Objective 5).

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DAVID SELBY, HILARY COX

David Selby read history at the University of Liverpool, and studied for his doctorate, in the history of education, at the University of Birmingham. He taught humanities at Gartree High School, Leicestershire, 1973-77, and whilst there arranged several school visits abroad (one of which was reported in **The New Era/World Studies Bulletin**, November 1976), and was much involved with the development in Leicestershire of the Unesco 3.01 scheme. He has been head of the humanities faculty at Groby Community College since autumn 1977.

Hilary Cox studied at the universities of Sussex and Leicester before taking up a teaching post at the Bosworth College, Leicestershire. She moved to her present post at Groby in 1977.

David Selby and Hilary Cox would be pleased to be in touch with teachers in other schools who are doing similar work. They can be contacted at Groby Community College, Ratby Road, Groby, Leics.

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'Things We Never Knew Existed' — perceptions of a course in world studies

Hugh Starkey, Andreas Panayides, and pupils at City of Ely College

Andreas Panayides is a teacher in Cyprus, who has been studying during this last academic year at the University of Cambridge Institute of Education. As part of his research he has been visiting City of Ely College, an 11-18 comprehensive school, where a course entitled European and World Studies has recently been introduced for 14-16 year-old pupils.

The research involved, amongst other things, tape-recording a number of interviews with pupils. The article which follows is the transcript of an interview which Andreas Panayides conducted in February 1978. The three pupils — Nigel, Stephen and Peter — were aged 15 at the time, and would probably be leaving school a few months later, in summer 1978. They were likely to achieve CSE grades between 2 and 4.

(For readers outside UK, a note of explanation here would no doubt be useful. CSE — the Certificate in Secondary Education — is an exam at 16+ taken mainly by pupils who will not be proceeding to higher education. Grades 2-4 represent the middle ability range.)

In addition to the transcript itself there are a number of written comments here also by Hugh Starkey, the teacher responsible for the course. These clarify some points which might otherwise be obscure, and highlight what Hugh Starkey sees as the most important matters arising. The whole article — involving interviewer, teacher and pupils — is offered here as a fascinating case-study account, with very many precise examples and references, of general problems and general possibilities.

Andreas Panayides: You are following now your second year of the World Studies?

Nigel: That is correct.

A.P.: What do you think your teacher, let's say Mr Starkey, is primarily concerned to teach you through this World Studies?

Nigel: To give us a bare outlook of the world's situation.

Stephen: A general idea on the world statistics. I, we've done a few projects on tea and world organisation and stuff like that.

Peter: I agree with the notion of giving us a better outlook of the world as it is today, — trying to see how poor people are, and how lucky we are in having our clothes, and our food, because people in the world are starving.



Hugh Starkey: It is striking that although the course has by no means exclusively concentrated on the third world, it is nevertheless those parts of the course which seem to have had the most impact.

A.P.: Well, do you think Mr Starkey is concerned to change your attitudes or your values towards all these world problems?

N: Yes, I think he is trying to change our attitudes, yes.

S: He's giving us quite a big outlook on everything really, I mean he is trying to get over to us . . .

N (cutting S): He's giving us the facts for us to sort out what we think ourselves about the situations.

S: It's quite a big outlook on mainly poor countries really.

N: Yes, third world countries.

P: We know a little about them, don't we?

S: Well, he's focused quite a lot on the tea plantations as well as Sri Lanka and Africa. We had a film on, what was it?

N: The conditions they worked in, and the pay

they get.

S: Yes, World in Action on tea. Right after that we wrote to Mr Humphrey, chairman of Brooke Bond, complained about the state, and he says that he agrees.

N: He agreed. He thinks there needs to be a lot of improvement.

S: But considering how much money is spent on the tea plantations compared with other money spent on other big projects, you know — tea, it needs quite an amount more spent on the tea plantations and housing for the pickers.

H.S.: An awareness by the pupils that the course attempts to change attitudes suggests, in itself, at least a change of awareness. One of the greatest changes in attitudes amongst the class concerns, as we see later in the interview, the pupils' attitude to the course and to their teacher.

The comment 'to sort out what we think ourselves' is very gratifying. I hope that the course is getting pupils to question and synthesise rather than to adopt packaged opinions.

The references to tea arise from a class project on tea from grower to consumer. Each pupil took on a different area of research. Two pupils took to writing letters, both to voice opinions and to obtain information. The reference to Mr Humphrey is to Sir Humphrey Prideaux.

A.P.: Well, what do you feel you yourself are getting out of this course?

N: We're learning things we never knew existed.

S: Yes, about the world, because at the start we never knew what conditions were like in Sri Lanka on the tea plantations. We thought it was quite a good life in the start. But after, we learned they only get something like 25p a week. We didn't know that.

N: If we see something on telly now, we may not have known before the situation, we now may understand it more — something that comes on telly.

S: What we just took for granted about all the poor people and stuff like that, we used to think they just wasted their money and stuff like that. But we see for ourselves what it's like.

N: We see they need more children to go out and work to bring more money into the house.

S: Yes, we always thought it was stupid having seven or eight children, but they do this so that when they get older they've got children to look after them.

A.P.: How important to you is the fact that you are preparing for a certain exam? I mean, does this help you or hinder you?

N: What's the question?

A.P.: Well you are preparing for certain exams.

N: The world studies CSE exam.

A.P.: Yeah, what's the importance of having the exams?

N: Well, it varies really. If you pass, you get a pass in it. It's a CSE Pass.

P: It's not really important. It's just an interesting thing to do.

S: Because it's not really established yet. You may go to some employer and say you have this World Studies, grade 2, and they won't know what you're getting on about.

P: In a few years time it may be useful, but not at the moment.

N: We are learning things that other pupils in school may not get a chance to learn.

S: Yes, we're the first people to actually do this course. I mean there are other classes, you know, throughout England I think, but we are the first, sort of, stage.

A.P.: Well, would it make any difference if you were not preparing for exams?

P: Not really. We wouldn't bother to do so much work then.

S: Yes, I think so, because we now got exams.

N: We need to get some projects done because that goes towards the exam marks.

S: Yes, and it helps so, and makes us concentrate more on the project, right, and we get it finished properly rather than leave it half done. It's definitely so to persuade us to work harder because of the exam.

N: I agree with Stephen, yes.

H.S.: From these comments it would appear that the course has given the pupils an interest in world affairs and a greater understanding of the world in which they live. Their interest seems quite unrelated to the status of the course as an examination subject. The

examination is perceived as a device for putting pressure on them, but is not resented as such. On balance I favour World Studies being an examination subject because it does encourage them to 'get it finished properly.' However, the pupils admit next that they have not felt that they have been working particularly hard in this subject!

A.P.: Well, what comments would you make on the teaching style of your teacher in world studies as compared with his or other teachers' style in other subjects?

N: Well I think he's trying to let us enjoy the subject while getting the work done. I think he's doing quite well.

S: Yeah, at least he's not going to make it hard for us, like if we didn't do our homework, he's not going to put us in detention or something like that.

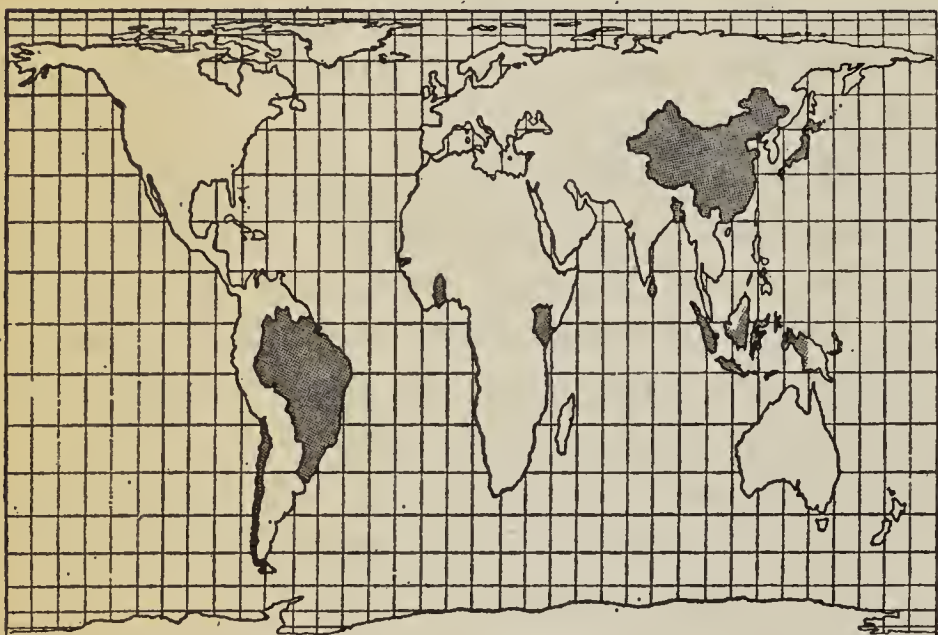
P: Yes, so you look forward to lessons because you've got no homework.

N: At the beginning of the year we were a bit rowdy, but I think he has done very well, because he seems to have put into our heads that this is as important as any other exam as far as he's concerned, and now we're quite a quiet class. We get on with the work all right.

S: He's done well really. He's not just . . . we first really hated him, but we have started to like him much more. We're looking forward to coming to this subject now rather than sort of dreading it. We don't want to waste the time.

H.S.: The question about teaching style is immediately related to 'is he strict?' Their view of 'a quiet class' is rather different from mine! There is certainly no hostility or antagonism but they are still quick to create diversion when interest starts waning.

The initial 'rowdiness' was a reaction to a new course with new methods, a period of trial and much error on my part and a lack of



FACTS AND IMAGES

This map of the world is the work of a German cartographer, Dr Arno Peters of the University of Bremen. It is an 'equal-area' projection, and hence gives a fairer impression of the relative size of continents than does the traditional Mercator projection. It also, compared with the Mercator, de-emphasises the northern hemisphere. It is studied in the World Studies course at City of Ely College, and was used in part of the exam in summer 1978. Readers of **The New Era** may be interested to see some of the questions which pupils were required to answer:

- 1a. On the map of the world, label the following countries with the number given below, e.g. for Kenya write 1.
 1. Kenya, 2. Ghana, 3. Bangladesh, 4. Indonesia, 5. The Gambia, 6. Chile, 7. Japan, 8. China, 9. Sri Lanka, 10. Brazil.
- b. Draw a line across the map to show which coun-

- tries are considered to be the 'north' in the North-South talks. Mark the line at both ends NS.
- c. Draw a line through Europe to show the boundary between the so-called West and East. Mark the line EW.
- d. Shade in the areas known as The Third World.
- 2a. Name three southern countries that are considered part of the North.
 - b. Name one eastern country that might be considered part of the West and one western country that might be considered part of the East.
3. Of the 10 countries named in Question 1:
 - a. Which has the largest population?
 - b. Which has the smallest population?
 - c. Name the four countries which have a population of over 100 million.
 - d. Which of the ten countries have a GNP per capita of over \$3000?
 - e. Which of the ten countries have a GNP per capita of under \$500?
 - f. Give the name of one product produced by each of the ten countries.
- 4a. What is the name of the projection used in the map of the world?
 - b. In what way is the map different from the traditional Mercator projection?
 - c. In what ways may this map change people's view of the world?

NOTE: A large coloured version of the Peters projection is available as a poster for classroom use. It costs £2, and can be ordered from Films and Publications Department, Christian Aid, PO Box 1, London SW9 8BH.

stimulating materials to arouse interest in the early stages. The lack of resources has now been overcome thanks to a grant from the Development Education Fund of the Overseas Development Ministry, which enabled a collection of materials for World Studies to be put together for the use of schools in the Ely area. We are also developing some new materials, similarly funded by the ODM grant.

A.P.: Well, what do you use the resources for in your lessons? I mean the slides and all these things?

S: Ah, well, he shows . . . the World in Action film.

N: Slides relates to what he tells us in class. He gives us the bare outlook of what he's said.

S: It's proof, isn't it?

N: And if he's said something we just couldn't believe him just like that, because anyone can say anything; but seeing the films and slides, I mean they just can't be made up.

S: A good difference as well, and so it varies the lesson when we see a film.

H.S.: A remarkably uncritical view of visual aids is put forward here. I must try to correct that before they leave me!

This contrasts with the view of teacher as an unreliable source: 'we just couldn't believe him just like that.' However, later on, when it comes to discussing immigration with father we get: 'Mr Starkey told me the truth, the facts.' Perhaps this refers to a perception that father's views are based on prejudice, not fact.

N: Yes, and we've had a lot of people coming to talk to us about various things, and it has been enjoyable really.

P: We've had a lot of booklets, haven't we?

S: I think you learn more from the films than you do actually from anything else, don't you?

A.P.: Do you feel the need of having some more resources?

S: Oh, yes.

N: Most definitely.

S: We could do with some more films rather than sort of plain slides.



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P: Yes . . . it seems more well done, more like real life.

S: Well, we had quite a few sort of speakers.

N: Yes, we've had a lot of speakers. He's got a lot of acquaintances with some good knowledge.

S: Yes, what was his name?

N&P: Iain Guest — He's Ghanaian.

P: He's helped us a lot, hasn't he?

S: Well, when we went to the Commonwealth Institute . . .

N: In London.

S: Yes, for a Ghana project, he was there — and he took our photo — he arranged it for us really.

N&P: Yes.

S: And we've also got this correspondence with a class in Sri Lanka, haven't we? So we can send across different sorts, our work in exchange.

H.S.: One of the features of this course has been the number and variety of speakers who have come into the class. These have included several people known to readers of **The New Era**, among them Robin Richardson, Andrew Hutchinson, Scott Sinclair and Richard Tames. We have also used teachers from the school with specialist knowledge and people from, or with experience of, a wide variety of countries.

Iain Guest, formerly with the New Internationalist and now of The Guardian, suggested and tried to arrange a link with a school in Sri Lanka. This will be for next year now.

The effect of capitalising on such contacts was to raise the status of the subject by reference to the priorities and interests of the outside world rather than those of the school.

A.P.: Well, do you talk about the world studies with other pupils or in any other lesson, either inside the school or outside the school?

N: Well, at home sometimes my Dad and I have an argument about something, you see, he may think something and I know the real truth, you know, Mr Starkey's told me the truth, the facts.

S: Yes, at home, yes.

N: We had some good discussion on immigration in this country with Mr Starkey, which is an important issue at the moment.

S: Well, I discuss it with my friends outside,

you know — good laugh. It's quite interesting, you know, we've just learned things we didn't know before about the world.

H.S.: This does suggest that the course has a relevance to the pupils and that they do relate what they learn in class to events which they come across elsewhere, such as through television programmes or discussions with friends and parents. One set of parents mentioned to me that they felt their son left them far behind as regards knowledge of current affairs. He was often trying to explain to them the background to television programmes!

A.P.: What do other teachers think about the world studies?

S: We don't really know.

N: We're not really sure, really.

P: (inaudible).

A.P.: Do other teachers ask you about the world studies?

N, S: Yes.

N; Mr Lees, the year leader, often asks how we're getting on with Mr Starkey now, because at the beginning of the year we had to see him a few times because of the rowdy, the rowdy issues in class, but now we've settled down and it's quite interesting.

S: Yes, he's got us under control now.

A.P.: Well, thank you, then.

N: Thank you very much.

H.S.: The pupils' perception is essentially the same as mine, namely that colleagues do not have time to be interested in the positive as-

VALUES AND CHANGE

Here is a further brief extract from the World Studies exam papers which were set in summer 1978 at City of Ely College:

- Choose one country other than the UK whose way of life and political system you admire. Say what you particularly like about it, and what you think Britain could learn from it.
- Choose one country whose way of life and political system you dislike. Explain what it is you dislike and what you think Britain should avoid.
- Of course no country is entirely 'good' or 'bad'. Write two things you dislike about country (a) and two things you like about country (b).
- What changes would you like to see in Britain which would make it more like your idea of 'the good society'? Say why you have chosen each point you mention and how the change would be an improvement.

pects of the course, but only in whether potentially rowdy elements are being contained.

I would prefer to think that 'we've settled down' was more true than 'he's got us under control'. However, it is often necessary to invoke the usual school methods of control in order to create a situation in which it is possible for pupils to become interested in a topic. One of the most successful and memorable talks of the course almost floundered at the outset because of noisy antagonistic behaviour. The speaker informed the class that they were a 'bloody rabble' and told them if they didn't calm down at once he would be catching the next train to London. The class ate out of his hand, and still vividly remember his talk.

HUGH STARKEY, ANDREAS PANAYIDES & PUPILS AT CITY OF ELY COLLEGE

A NEW JOURNAL

Welcome to the **Education Journal** of the Commission for Racial Equality. Its first issue appeared in April 1978, and contained useful articles on the need to expand the concept of multi-racial education, and on the contrasts between British immigration to the Caribbean in the seventeenth century and Caribbean immigration to Britain in the 1950s and 1960s. It is available free of charge from the Commission for Racial Equality, 10/12 Allington St, London SW1E 5EH.

FOOD AND HUNGER IN THE SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY — A GUIDE FOR ACTION

'Are our bodies becoming the final repositories for chemical, additive and preservative manufacturers? Are we being manipulated to eat food which is not nutritious and possibly detrimental to our health? Are we losing the ability to control what we eat? These questions suggest that good nutrition is complicated by political, economic and social factors.'

A useful guide for teachers on these themes is available for 1 dollar from World Hunger Year, Box 1975, Garden City, NY 11530, USA. It has been put together by a team co-ordinated by John Ripton and Susan Hall, and consists mainly of a series of classroom activities. These are clearly laid out under the headings of introduction, generalisation, objectives, activity, and further investigation. There is also a very full bibliography, and lists of films, organisations and periodicals.

Before taking up his present post as head of languages at City of Ely College, Hugh Starkey was warden of the Brunswick Curriculum Development Centre, Cambridge. Whilst there he was the main co-ordinator of the Cambridge Africa Project. An article about this appeared in **The New Era/World Studies Bulletin**, November 1976, and a film about it, entitled **What is it we're looking at, miss?**, is available for hire from Concord Films Council, 201 Felixstowe Road, Ipswich IP3 9BJ.

Hugh is also much involved with the Ely **Materials for World Studies** project, which is funded by a grant from the Overseas Development Ministry. The first materials from this project are being published in summer 1978. They include games and exercises to do with world trade and development, and some evaluative papers about the project edited by David Bridges. Details about these materials and papers are available from Sylvia Stephenson, Ely Resource and Technology Centre, Back Hill, CB7 4DA.

'THE SANE ALTERNATIVE'

The Sane Alternative is a new book by James Robertson, author of **Profit or People?** (1974) and **Power, Money and Sex** (1976). It is, he writes, for activists who aim to achieve social change, for managers and professional people who want to keep abreast of future possibilities, for social scientists and economists whose disciplines face a challenging future, and for concerned people who don't want to leave the future to the experts.

The book has 150 pages, and is available from the author for £1.50 plus 30p postage at 7 St Ann's Villas, London W11 4RU, or from any bookseller (ISBN 0 950962 0 5).

THE WORLD IN ELY

In autumn 1978 there is to be in Ely, as in many other British cities and towns, a 'One World Week'. The week will include a massive festival in the cathedral, involving music, dance, mime, gymnastics, drama, art, folksong and folktales, and worship; and a series of house meetings involving people from, amongst others, Shelter, Child Poverty Action Group, Friends of the Earth, and Amnesty International; and a One World Cafe, emphasising Ely's dependence on food produced in other parts of the world.

The basic concepts behind the week — 'Ely in the world, the world in Ely' — are of interest in all other towns and cities in the world also.

A leaflet about the week is available from the secretary of the planning committee: Dr Phyllis Starkey, 4 Church Lane, Ely.

What Happened to the Me of Yesteryear? — notes from a primary school classroom

Barbara Clark, London

When she left university Barbara Clark joined Antipoverty, the educational agency founded by Og Thomas, now director of Oxfam's education department.

In due course she felt that she wanted to be in a classroom rather than in an agency outside schools, and entered teaching full time. But the 'me of yesteryear' — the adult, the campaigner for a better life for the world's poor, the capable and concerned organiser of events and meetings — quickly became paralysed by, as Barbara Clark puts it, Beta Maths and Beacon Readers.

She describes here the paralysis, in terms which many teachers will readily recognise. She describes also some of the ways she herself emerged from the paralysis, and speculates about the implications of these for others.

A lifeline for herself, Barbara says, was writing an article about her first few years of teaching. This is it.

Introduction

From university to a Third World pressure group to primary teaching. 'I want to do it for myself', I said, 'not just exhort others to.' 'Do what?' you ask. 'Teach about development, of course.' 'And why primary?' — 'Because that's the age when they're enthusiastic, and malleable, and relatively free from prejudice.'

Yes, and it's also the age when they have to learn their tables, when they have to be dissuaded from going to the toilet every five minutes, and when they habitually lose their pencils, their plimsolls and everything else. After four-and-a-half years of teaching I'm just getting round to a bit of development studies.

Yes of course I exaggerate. I started a topic on India in my first term of teaching on the strength of the Oxfam wallet. But let's be honest: who did the topic? — Why me, of course. I pinned up the photos; annotated them with pointed questions — 'What do you think this little shoe-shine boy is thinking about?'; and brought in the clothes, the tape of sitar music, and the joss-sticks — 'Ooh, they make me feel sick, miss — 'ere, Jim, stuff that up yer nose'. But amidst the inter-



ruptions, pencil-pinching and chewing gum there wasn't a lot that any of us got out of it.

The problem of 'how'

However, there had been an atmosphere on that display-day, and things had looked and felt promising, so the following term with already sinking heart I launched in with To Kok Li, a Village in Korea, where interesting science could be demonstrated through the land reclamation project described. This was material I myself had helped to prepare with Antipoverty and so I should have felt confident. I had note-books full of titbits on how to tie the bow on a Korean woman's sash, and traditional pastimes of swinging and kite-flying. But, once again, it was the 'how' that tripped me up.

How to put it over other than by extended monologues from the front (interspersed with 'Danny stop rocking your chair, you'll break it' — 'Miss, it's him, he's kicking me')? How to occupy, interest and extend thirty children all at once and on some tin-pot little village that need not have been further than Isling-

ton for it to have been just as 'foreign' to those south London children? (Indeed, when we exchanged letters with a class a friend of mine was teaching in Kentish Town one child actually asked me if the letters came from 'that village wot we was talkin' about'). But to return to the problem I just mentioned of 'occupying, interesting and extending' those little minds, that fertile ground I had so wished to cultivate. How I give myself (and I suspect many other teachers) away, merely by the order of those words! Interest them, take it a bit further and extend them, and the word 'occupy' becomes redundant. Fail to interest them and you will always struggle to occupy them, struggle to keep Danny and the others in their seats, and Annette from telling tales, and Doreen from singing Donny Osmond songs. (Well, this was four years ago!).

And yet one of the things that weighs on my conscience is that more-or-less wasted year for those poor children. Not that I believe I was any worse than many; good times were had, thanks in part to an infamous point system, albeit thrown in my face one day after I had been absent for a morning. (The class had been taken by the Deputy Head, and it was Doreen who approached me on my return saying 'Miss, we haven't had any points so far today.') But they could have learnt about development, they could have learnt about To Kok Li and its desalination programme; they could have learnt how to multiply and do decimals. Instead they had me, a beginner, who expected kids to be automatically interested and responsive ('they are at the primary age'). Well so they are, most responsive, if you know how to set about it, and that took me several more terms to master.

Projects

'Goodness she must have been a bad teacher,' I hear some say, whilst others I am sure would still consider me a beginner. Really it all depends on what you mean by mastery. I went on to teach another class for another year and I taught a whole lot better. I took them on outings, did projects. Who did? Did they or did I? Well, they did more than just sniff the joss-sticks. But did they

think? Did it come home to them what it was like to live in a village or grow rice?

So when the post became available I opted to become a floating teacher in the school, free from the dinner-money grind with more time for projects. I was thrown into everything. I had bright groups for special topic work, remedial groups for reading and maths, and classes to take at the drop of a hat when a teacher was absent. Very demanding and thoroughly good experience. I can now talk for half-an-hour or more on anything that comes into my head as I walk through the door. I have games and puzzles up my sleeve, a good memory for names and discipline without tears, the true teacher's bluff.

But as the project on people from many lands got postponed for the fifth week owing to staff absences, my ability to keep up the fresh approach and the enthusiastic preparation dwindled. With the result that when in the sixth week the group was suddenly there awaiting their project the spirit was lost, and with it the opportunity to provoke thought and questioning.

Sometimes things worked, sometimes I was able to guide children to step into others' shoes. A notable success, strangely enough, was some work on the Norman Conquest (safe, with plenty of books in the school) when the idea of some strange foreigners coming and building a castle on the best hill in the village, the one they had always enjoyed rolling and sledging down, struck a chord and really for the first time I saw happening what I had entered teaching for. But — it was the Normans of the eleventh century not the Third World of today. Even the idea of the starving Paris mobs of 1879 raiding the local supermarket for bread had a touch of *cinéma vérité* which appealed.

Development, however, just never seemed to get off the ground, and I began to get a sensation of slowly drowning in a mire of playtimes, dinner duties, lost pencils and The Christmas Concert. Where was the old intellectual me? Where was the campaigner for a better life for the world's poor? Where was the adult who had worked with other adults, using offices, phoning other offices, arranging meetings? The little six-year-old could not have known how much it depressed

and hurt we when she innocently asked 'Which class are you in, Miss?'

Struggle for independence

We all have a feeling about school, the prison, or at least the workhouse, bred into us from our own days as pupils. I am forever meeting parents who are quite confident, independent adults 'outside', but who nevertheless get this sinking, awestruck feeling when they enter school. There's something about the smell and the sounds that bring it all back, and make one feel small and ready-to-be-guilty.

Teachers do their best to counteract this. The luxury of coffee at break in the hallowed staff-room; talking and laughing with another teacher, openly in the middle of a lesson; even popping out of the classroom to take a phone-call or attend to 'something important, children. Be very quiet while I'm gone'. Am I alone in all this? It all sounds so horribly adolescent, like the struggle for independence while still living 'at home'. Then there is the petty behaviour, the crossness and 'telling-off', the feigned tantrum when Jimmy spells the words wrong yet again. I exaggerate perhaps, but I think teachers reading this will recognise the feelings.

So what of this other-me: this adult of yester-year? Well through the long dark years I clung on to a thin-thin life-line. From my former associations with development movements, although I failed to make use of all the educational aids and advisors, all the Oxfam packs and Christian Aid worksheets, I continued to write book-reviews on development topics. The other connections got lost because I got bogged down, as I have explained. Advisors who, no doubt, would have helped me, I failed to contact because for some reason my horizons had narrowed right down to the four walls of my school. All the time I knew I should be reaching out, going to this course or that meeting, but a kind of paralysis gripped me, and the claws of Beta Maths and Beacon Readers held me fast.

A speck of light

All, that is, except for my triennial flurries on the type-writer and the satisfaction of another

review in print. It was a stray letter of mine following up one such review that suddenly revealed a speck of light at the end of the tunnel. Why not contact so-and-so?, came the reply; why not write an article on your first few years of teaching? At that stage I couldn't do it. I liked the idea and it woke me up a bit, but I couldn't sort anything out to write. Then came an invitation to a conference on development education. Me, invited to a conference . . . Why, of course. My views were as valuable as any. I knew about development issues and, I began to realize, I knew about teaching.

Moreover, I knew about some of the problems of teaching these development issues. I, keenly concerned about such issues and motivated to take up teaching as a way of changing people's attitudes (the future generation if not our own), was also one of those anonymous teachers who disregard circulars, won't go on courses, fail to make use of resources available.

Isolation and support

I am still puzzled about why teaching should have affected me in this way. I know I took to teaching with a struggle, felt it as an act and an act which I resented. Perhaps others have felt the same. At least through it all I have learnt what teaching is about. I know that the isolation of the teacher in his or her classroom is counter-productive; that they need stimulus and they need it to come to them, in the form of helpful inspectors and advisors, not to be offered them only in the form of courses at a teacher's centre, a busride or two away. Fortunate teachers may have such support from the staff around them, but even so I feel contact with the outside is necessary, away from the eternal tales about the same half dozen children which dominate so much of staffroom conversation.

In addition to a larger and more intrusive advisory service I believe that some form of continual self-assessment and discussion with other teachers should be built into the job, and that each teacher should be assigned to meeting a group regularly as part of their work. Surgeons attend surgical society meetings where they exchange new techniques and ideas. Teachers who work in this strange

environment with all its tendencies to pettiness and dampening of enthusiasm need similar, frequent, revitalising exchanges. Only in this way can high professional standards be maintained, and the old criticism of 9-4 teachers, with whom I have great sympathies in their present isolation, be invalidated.

BARBARA CLARK

Barbara Clark read English at Oxford, and is currently teaching in a primary school in Notting Hill, London. The book reviews to which she refers in her article appeared in **New Internationalist**. In autumn 1978 she is taking up a new post with the Learning Materials Service of the Inner London Education Authority, which will involve compiling resources for development studies for the 14-16 age-range.

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The Growth and Nature of Self-Esteem: — attitudes and feelings in multi-ethnic schools

Gajendra Verma and Kanka Mallick, University of Bradford, UK.

This article begins by reviewing some of the extensive writings on concepts such as self-esteem, self-image, self-confidence, self-trust, self-valuation etc.

Using one definition in particular, Gajendra Verma and Kanka Mallick conducted some research with 14-16 year-old pupils in 39 British schools, 29 of them multi-ethnic. They found that Asian and white pupils have higher self-esteem than black pupils, and that black girls have higher self-esteem than black boys.

The article ends by suggesting that the research has some encouraging implications for multi-cultural education in Britain: 'Pupils from ethnic minority groups do not need to bargain away their identity for the price of an education. The school is in command of certain factors which can contribute to a harmonious multi-cultural society: re-examination of curriculum for multi-ethnic classes, teacher training, and working closely with parents and community.'

Introduction

The study of the self is a fairly recent development within the discipline of education, but it has a long historical background. Many writers, from ancient times onwards, have considered the nature of the self and its role in human behaviour and motivation. The work of Freud, William James, Mead, Rogers and others has generated considerable interest in this topic in educational and psychological studies. The theories of these various scholars concerning the self and self-concept have been extensively reviewed by Labenne and Greene (1969).

More recently, the desire to enhance the self-concept of pupils, particularly in their early education, and the relationships between self-concept and school attainment have stimulated numerous studies and assessment. In spite of increased research activities, however, the notion of the self is still in a state of confusion in modern social psychological theories. For example, a glance through the literature reveals an endless list of terms such as self-concept, self-evaluation, self-image, self-esteem, self-perception etc. Most of these terms have overlapping definitions, and hence the theories connected



with them are ambiguous.

Coopersmith's work on the **Antecedents of Self-Esteem** (1967) represents a well-defined attempt to measure self-esteem in relation to contextual variables, the two major contexts of apparent relevance to adolescents being the home and the school. He explains: 'It is from a person's actions and relative position within (his) frame of reference that he comes to believe that he is a success or failure. Since all capabilities and performances are viewed from such a personal context we must know, for example, conditions and standards within a given classroom, groups of professionals, or a family before making any conclusions about any individual's feelings of worthiness' (p.20). What Coopersmith is saying is that evaluation of the self by reference to significant others is a relatively enduring process. In developmental terms, children internalise from their parents views of themselves which are relatively enduring. School experiences also contribute to the formation of a self-picture which is both self-confirming and en

during.

In this study we are concerned with 'self-esteem' as conceptualised and developed by Coopersmith. Self-esteem is largely an affective or evaluative dimension, measuring how the individual feels about himself or herself, and evaluates himself or herself in relation to others. The amount of value we ascribe to the self is our self-esteem. Like the other aspects of the self, this also is learned from others and becomes a reflection of how others regard us. An individual's behaviour is likely to reflect his or her self-esteem. Coopersmith (1975) writing about this in multi-ethnic situations suggests that 'Persons not only form pictures of themselves, they also develop feelings and attitudes about the content and quality of that image. They may like and admire the image they see in their mind's eye, or they may feel varying amounts of dislike and even hostility about the self they have formed. These positive or negative attitudes and feelings about the self are the evaluative sentiments known as self-esteem. Thus the self-concept is the symbol or the image which the person has formed out of his personal experiences while self-esteem is the person's evaluation of that image' (p.148).

Self-Esteem and Multi-Ethnic Education

Multi-ethnic education is one of the most significant social issues of contemporary British life. In addition to native whites many schools contain pupils from the former commonwealth countries in the Caribbean, Africa, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and South East Asia. These minority groups differ widely in their social, cultural and psychological characteristics.

It is widely acknowledged that these multi-racial schools face various kinds of problems, including those presented by multi-lingualism, cultural differences between various groups, and between pupils and teachers, and also the impact on pupils of the wider system of racial discrimination. Because of these and other problems, various kinds of question are often raised with regard to the social, psychological and academic adjustments of pupils taught in multi-ethnic environments. The implicit fear on the part of some people seems to be of the possible development of tension, anxiety and interpersonal distrust and con-

flict, and their effects on the self-evaluation of various ethnic groups. Many hold the view that group relationships in multi-ethnic schools, specially with a high proportion of ethnic minorities, generate prejudice and discrimination.

A number of writers have portrayed a rather bleak picture of multi-ethnic or desegregated schools, particularly in an American setting. On the other hand there are some positive descriptions of multi-ethnic, multi-cultural schooling as well. DuBois (1935) wrote that 'other things being equal, the mixed school is the broader, more natural basis for the education of all youth. It gives wider contacts; it inspires greater self-confidence and suppresses the inferiority complex'. Pettigrew (1971) believes that the integrated school can be a vehicle for the fulfilment of pluralistic aspirations of its members, and can also provide for the social psychological and intellectual needs of all the groups it serves. Clark and Clark (1950) are of the opinion that segregation in American schools was partly responsible for the negative image of black pupils.

An examination of recent American research evidence (summarised by Coopersmith 1975) on self-esteem in blacks shows a reverse of earlier trends for blacks to have lower self-esteem than whites. Rosenberg and Simmons (1973) found that black American children in the predominantly black schools regard themselves more favourably than black children in predominantly white schools. It should be mentioned here that the situations in the United States cannot, however, be equated with the emerging patterns of race relations in Britain. The background of minority groups in Britain is different from that of blacks in America, and the system of education in the two countries is different. In Britain, where all schools are integrated, blacks and Asians are exposed to a white dominated environment. Loudon (1977) made a self-esteem study of 375 adolescents from various ethnic groups attending secondary schools in the West Midlands. He found that, overall, there were no significant differences in self-esteem between ethnic groups. However, West Indian girls had higher levels of self-esteem than Asian girls, who in turn had higher levels of self-esteem than English girls.

Louden found that in general, the higher the proportion of blacks in a school, the higher the levels of self-esteem in the black pupils. Loudon suggests that a whole variety of factors in the school may influence self-esteem in various ethnic groups, including the degree to which minority groups are insulated from various types of white racism.

The Present Study

The piece of research described in this paper is part of a larger study (Verma 1977). This study was designed to explore the self-esteem level of the three major ethnic groups in British multi-ethnic secondary schools. As mentioned earlier very little empirical data is available in a British setting. Underlying the present study was the explicit assumption that any measured differences in self-esteem among the three ethnic groups (Blacks, Asians and Whites) are due to environmental factors. It is assumed, that is to say, that the evaluation of one's feelings and sentiments is not determined by racial affiliation.

The Sample

The sample consisted of 14-16 year-old pupils drawn from 39 schools in London, the Midlands and the North of England. These schools represented both urban and rural regions of the country and were of differing environments and of different sizes and types.

Twenty-nine of the schools were multi-racial, containing Blacks and Asians in varying proportions which ranged from 5% to 40%. Data on self-esteem were analysed from these twenty-nine schools for the purposes of this study since the main object of this research was to compare self-esteem levels of White, Asian and Black adolescents who have had four to five years of schooling in multi-ethnic environments. In all some 1,000 pupils belonging to the three ethnic groups were studied, which comprised 141 Blacks (West Indian) and 137 Asian pupils. Asian pupils came from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh or East Africa.

The Instrument

Researchers face particular problems in attempting to measure aspects of self-esteem in multi-ethnic environments. These problems

are: the selection of an appropriate measure of self-esteem; establishing the reliability and validity of the instrument; ascertaining the relevance, credibility and acceptability of the measure; and relating the measure of self-esteem to other theoretical constructs.

A number of different self-esteem measures have been used in recent research studies, but little attempt has been made to check the relationship of these methods to one another. Because of the poverty of such work we felt that the best strategy was to use a measure which is known to be reliable, has some evidence of validity, and has been used cross-culturally. For this reason we used the scale developed by Coopersmith (1967). This scale has been widely used in America, and has proved to be of high reliability and of considerable validity (Coopersmith, 1967; Many and Many, 1975). The cross-cultural reliability of the scale has been established in an Australian Study (Edgar et al, 1974), but no work which we can locate has been carried out with the scale in a British setting. Indeed, very little British research has been conducted in the field of self-esteem.

The Coopersmith scale consists of 58 items (including a lie scale) and covers three areas — self-esteem in the context of the home and the family, self-esteem in school and peer group, and general evaluation of the self.

Results and Discussion

The present study may be particularly valuable in obtaining a more comprehensive, overall esteem profile of Black, Asian and White adolescents in which local and situational factors were randomised.

First of all, in the analysis, profiles of the self-esteem characteristics of the three ethnic groups were compared. The results showed that in general self-esteem levels of Asian pupils do not differ significantly from those of their white counterparts. With regard to the comparison of self-esteem between black and white pupils, the black boys have significantly poorer self-esteem than their white counterparts: the mean self-esteem score for black boys is 22.35, Standard Deviation 10.62; for the white boys 17.65, SD 9.64 (A higher score on the Coopersmith scale indicates poorer self-esteem). The difference between the

black girls and the white girls is not significant, however: the mean score for black girls is 18.67, SD 10.39; for the white girls 18.94, SD 10.13. It is interesting to note that the black girls have significantly better self-esteem than black boys. The overall patterns indicated that white and Asian groups were closer in respect of their self-esteem profile than the black group. Also, Asian and white groups had higher levels of self-esteem as compared with the black pupils.

Further analysis of data was carried out to explore levels of self-esteem in Asian and black pupils in relation to their proportions in the school classes attended. No significant difference was obtained in the case of Asian pupils — their self-esteem was independent of ethnic concentration. The results showed that the self-esteem of black male pupils, however, did vary with ethnic concentration, being highest in classes with middle levels of concentration (between 10 and 25 per cent blacks). The self-esteem of black girls was highest in classes with high levels of concentration (more than 30 per cent blacks) and poorest in the lower level of concentration (less than 10 per cent blacks).

The results of this study show that, in particular, the level of self-esteem in male blacks is below that of female blacks, Asians and whites. This poor self-esteem may be a result of a historical situation in which the ravages of slavery led to a matriarchal and authoritarian family system which devalued males, and also to the continuance of severe racial discrimination against black males. For example, McIntosh and Smith (1974) found that male blacks applying for junior clerical posts were discriminated against in 48 per cent of cases; female blacks applying for similar posts were discriminated against in 22 per cent of cases. The knowledge of racial discrimination in society filters to the school, and depresses motivation and increases alienation.

If our sample represented a fair picture of the teenagers in multi-ethnic schools, the findings of this study may have a number of implications for multi-ethnic education. In the multi-ethnic school particular levels of self-esteem may emerge from the interactions and the structural organisation of the school.

The school can modify or enhance particular levels of self-esteem.

In the real world of the classroom, pupils of various ethnic groups navigate a careful journey between the narrow straits of community feelings. Still, the fate of multicultural education in Britain seems to be one of promise and fulfilment. Pupils from ethnic minority groups do not need to bargain away their identity as the price of an education. The school is in command of those factors which can contribute to a harmonious multicultural, multi-ethnic society: re-examination of curriculum for multi-ethnic classes, and, working closely with parents and the community, for example. This in turn can exert an important influence on self-esteem. The great bulk of research suggests that ethnic identity can prosper only where children and adolescents are free to be themselves. In a racist society, the multi-ethnic classroom would seem to be one of the few such places.

GAJENDRA VERMA, KANKA MALLICK

Notes on this article are overleaf

SERVAS WELCOMES INTERNATIONAL TRAVELLERS To share peace in Homes Throughout the World



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Dr Verma obtained his qualifications in educational psychology from London University, and is currently senior lecturer in Psychology of Education in the Post-graduate School of Studies in Research in Education at the University of Bradford, UK. He is co-editor with Christopher Bagley of **Race and Education Across Cultures** (Heinemann, 1975), and **Race, Education and Identity** (The Macmillan Press, 1978), and is also co-author of **Problems and Effects of Teaching about Race Relations** (Ward Lock, January 1979), and **Prejudice: Attitude and Behaviour** (forthcoming, 1979).

Kanka Mallick is currently senior lecturer in educational psychology at Darlington College of Education. She obtained her MA and PhD in educational psychology from the University of London Institute of Education. Her research interests are in the area of social psychology and multi-cultural education.

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WORLD POPULATION REPORT

A useful new booklet on population issues, with several simple and clear diagrams and tables, is available for 25p from Population Concern, 27-45 Mortimer St, London W1N 7RJ.

MONITORS NEEDED

The Broadcasting Study-Action Group sponsored by the Centre for World Development Education is planning to set up a network of people willing to monitor radio and television broadcasts for children. Since the media (especially television) play an important role in imparting information and shaping people's attitudes, the Group feels it is vital to find out exactly what is being said about 'development' issues — and what isn't being said, too. To do this a large team of volunteer monitors is needed. The aim is to cover schools broadcasts, out-of-school broadcasts aimed at children, and adult programmes viewed by children up to the age of sixteen.

The Group will be pleased to hear from anyone willing to take part in this monitoring scheme, which it hopes to start in September 1978. Involvement could range from watching an occasional, single programme to regular monitoring of a complete series.

The Group will be producing notes for the guidance of monitors, and a 'report card' to make the job easier and provide a basis for collating comments. If you think you might be able to help please write to: Broadcasting Group, Centre for World Development Education, 25 Witon Road, London, SW1V 1JS.

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— These are introductory remarks in a useful new social studies textbook by Janet Stuart for 15-16 year-old students. The book is extremely well illustrated and has sections on colonialism, neo-colonialism, world trade, models of development (China, Brazil, India, Nigeria, Tanzania etc), and the New International Economic Order. Janet Stuart also includes several very helpful comments and notes for teachers. The book has 96 pages, costs £2.95, and is available from Edward Arnold, 25 Hill St, London W1X 8LL, or any bookseller (ISBN 07131, 0142, 3).

INTERMEDIATE TECHNOLOGY

Seven slide sets — with titles such as Water, Building, Energy — are available, together with detailed notes for teachers, from CWDE. Free leaflet from Centre for World Development Education, 25 Wilton Road, London SW1.

MANCHESTER OXFAM PROJECT

A newsletter about this project, which involves relating world development topics to Jerome Bruner's famous MACOS materials, is available free of charge from Keith Glazzard, Plant Hill High School, Plant Hill Road, Manchester M9 2WD.

The Third World at First Hand — an experience for student teachers

David Wright, Keswick Hall College, Norwich, UK

This is an account of three visits made by British student teachers to Tunisia. The purpose in each instance was to increase their understanding of another country and culture, and in this way to extend and improve their abilities in the classroom as teachers.

David Wright describes, amongst other things, various constraints and imitations. His account is in consequence more useful for others — for it is about recognisable reality, not an idealised picture. But he is clearly in no doubt — and he transmits this feeling to the reader — that the visits were worthwhile.

Introduction

'Education for international understanding' is a high ideal to which almost everyone pays lip-service. But it is also an ideal which seems to be an unattainable dream as soon as we realise that we do not even 'understand' the people whom we meet every week. How can we possibly 'understand' other peoples and other nations?

On the assumption that a first step on the path towards international understanding would be an actual visit to an area of contrasting culture and history, we developed at Keswick Hall College the idea of a 'Third World Fieldweek.' So far we have organised three such weeks — in 1973, 1974 and 1977 — and we are currently planning a fourth for 1979 which will be an integral part of a Development Studies course. The account which follows is a reflection on our experience. It is personal and subjective — and as much concerned with the nitty-gritty of timetables, costs and kit-lists as with ideas and ideals. The fact is that in this context you cannot achieve the ideals without the organisation.

The statement of objectives which we are circulating for the visit in 1979, based on our experience in the earlier years, is shown in Table One.

We are also circulating a list of 'Main Reasons for Not Coming', which is shown in Table Two.

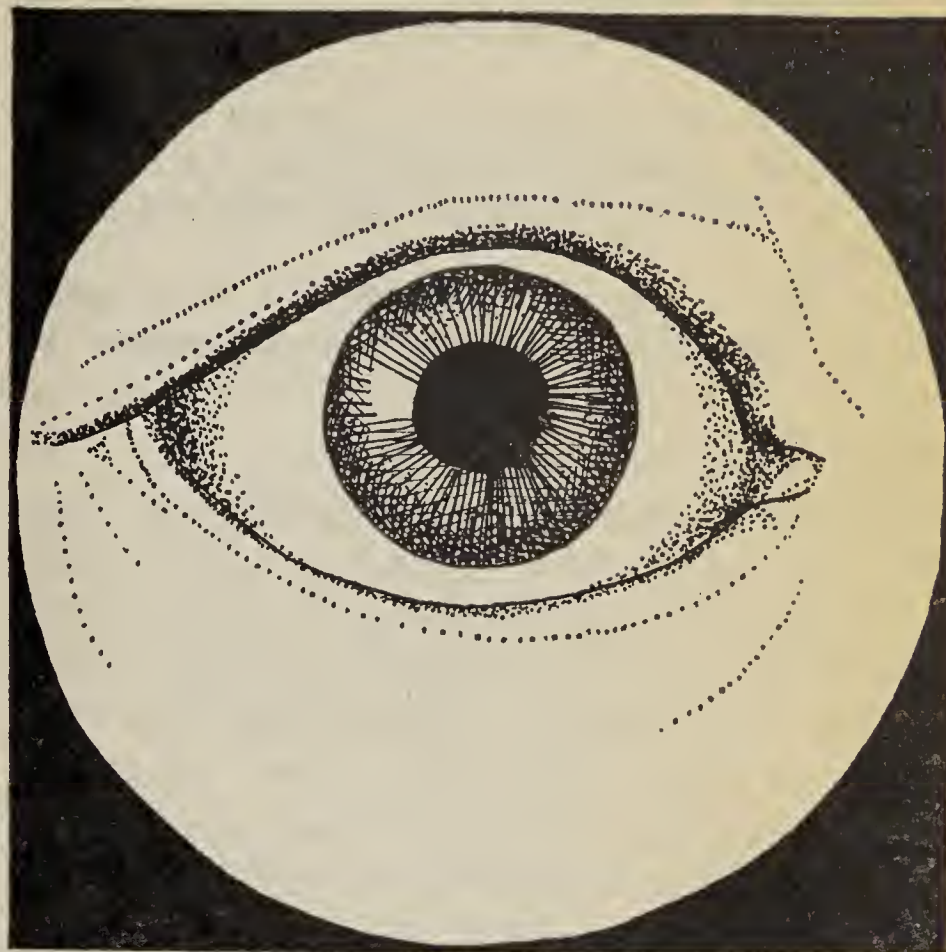


TABLE ONE: OBJECTIVES

1. Since you have to pay some of the cost of this visit, a major objective is that you should enjoy it. But it is not exciting for its nightlife. (Alcoholic drinks are expensive and not good quality; Spain is a better destination if that is your objective). The enjoyment will come from some or all of the following objectives; if you don't agree with them, don't come!
2. To experience very different environments from your own.
3. To observe, and try to understand, problems and achievements of a third world country.
4. To experience a country with a different culture and history.
5. To learn how to use an unfamiliar public transport system, so that — next time — you can plan to get off the beaten track without a 'leader'.
6. To gain ideas and materials to teach about the third world, development, Islam etc.
7. To gain ideas and examples relevant to the Year 3 and 4 Unit on Development Studies.
8. To choose one topic to study more deeply: you will be resource person for that topic, throughout the week.

TABLE TWO: REASONS FOR NOT COMING

1. (Obviously) the cost — £100 could buy a lot of books.
 2. If you were ill, you would be miserable — yet you'd have to stay with us. (No-one was ill the last three times.)
 3. Inevitably, there is some uncertainty: e.g. If floods wash away the railway, we may not get to some of the places we hope to visit.
 4. There are some good sand-dunes near Yarmouth, anyway.
 5. Observing other people is a difficult activity — they don't all welcome it, and they stare at you, too!
 6. Do you really like sitting on rattly trains and bumpy buses?
 7. You have to buy your own drinks — even bottled water! (But all other essential costs are included.)
-

Width rather than depth

In the light of the objectives outlined in Table One, the visits have aimed at width rather than depth. So each visit has included a wide variety of urban and rural landscapes, even though the balance has varied. The 'old towns' of Tunis (1973), Kairouan (1974) and Sousse (1974 & 1977) have been visited with enthusiasm, but experience of the 'New Town' parts has tended to be limited to the main streets — suburbia is not exciting enough. The contrasts are what people seek, and in the process the similarities are perhaps inadequately noticed. Similarly, traditional industry is fascinating — the potters of Nabeul, the forges in Kairouan, the olive-presses everywhere, the dyers in Tunis, the carpenter in Hammamet, the dozens of workshops in Sousse. It is all so much more visible and human than in the UK, where one has to book to enter a factory and be guided round huge and incomprehensible machines. The concept of Intermediate Technology comes over much more clearly and vividly than in lectures. But one wonders at times whether the modern industry is even noticed, let alone remembered and included in subsequent teaching.

The markets link town and countryside, and provide a fascinating summary of inputs and outputs. Nabeul ('73) and Sousse ('74 & '77) markets included so many items that never figure in textbooks but are of obvious significance, varying from recycled lorry back-axles on new carts, to discarded American clothes threatening the local tailors' liveli-

hood. The remarkable variety of farming provided another focus of attention: lowland and upland; irrigated and dry farming; settled and nomadic pastoralism; labour-intensive and capital-intensive approaches. On the Sahara visit (1977) we managed to include rock-desert, gravel plains, sand-dunes, salt-flats (chott), and oases.

We have not 'studied' tourism: we have learned through experience. Questions have arisen naturally: Why is the crockery made in Germany? Why are there so many waiters — and why are they all men? Why are half the hotels closed in the winter? Why can't we drink the water? Where does the food come from? A useful picture is built up — and a not altogether favourable balance-sheet of tourism begins to emerge.

Learning through discovery

Clearly, this approach to field-study is very different from the 'hypothesis-testing' field-work currently in vogue. (There is a well-documented case of a university visit to Tunisia in which some of the participants spent a week doing a traffic survey in Sousse — One wonders whether a day's traffic survey in London might have been equally valuable as well as less boring and much less expensive.) The unscientific impression gathering has a justification quite apart from its 'necessity', imposed by the voluntary nature of these visits. It is the first-hand impressions which stick, that can be built into a structured understanding. This is learning through discovery, experience-centred learning, which is in line with modern education, if not with modern Geography.

'Development' is a major theme — and development is about all Geography, not just one part. In fact it is wider than Geography, and the widest possible vision is necessary. Depth-study of one aspect of the economy, while ignoring other parts, would produce a more inaccurate picture. So the 'miscellaneous' observations fit into some sort of pattern — the early hours people start work; the importance of donkeys; the small number of women seen in the smaller towns; the lack of private cars outside towns — all these impressions, and many more, have value in building a picture and giving life to study of

both economic development and a contrasting culture. By focussing on one country, questions of similarities and differences with others parts of the Third World arise that can be followed up later.

The role of staff was to act as sources of ideas; to be facilitators and discussion-guiders, rather than 'leaders' — and all three functions were unobtrusive. Most of the students were glad to accept suggestions. Except when using public transport it was necessary to split into small groups, with each group including some men: otherwise, all Tunisia stared at the crocodile of extraordinary foreigners and there was no activity to observe. The subsequent discussion of the significance of what had been seen was informal, but important, and the exchange of observations was enjoyable. A successful innovation in 1977 was the allocation of topics to individual 'Resource-Persons' — everything from Architecture to Water had someone who had said they would read round the topic — and some students had done so thoroughly.

Public transport

We successfully used public transport a great deal. Both buses and trains are remarkably cheap — less than 1p a mile. One can thus travel at about one-fifth the cost of travel in Britain, and in addition have lots of local atmosphere, some interesting conversations, and halts in interesting and unlikely places that one would not stop at if driving. One also has waits of two hours because the bus does not come, five hours because the bus is sardine-full, and 25 hours because floods have washed away the railway. Apart from the last one, the delays are very valuable — a real chance for unhurried observations of everyday life.

However, the transport system is complex, and it is necessary to have acquired considerable expertise in finding out how to find out whether, when and where buses go, before arriving with a group of students. There are no simple rules for acquiring this expertise, apart from asking as many people as possible and hoping that the most frequently quoted times and places are correct.

On the 1973 and 1974 visits, we included a

day's car hire, which allowed a variety of routes to be taken in upland areas. The spontaneous swapping of experiences after we had all returned was the most successful 'seminar' I can recall — however, costs have now increased to such an extent that it is no longer practicable. Similarly, a day's coach-hire is likely to be more expensive — and much less interesting — than a week's use of public transport.

The kit list needs to include phrases such as 'Trousers with an internal pocket' (pick-pockets can be a problem on 'sardine buses'), and 'facewipes' are a lightweight luxury for when the water is off in the desert. An explanatory statement (in French) on college headed notepaper works wonders when an official challenges anyone. We have also found that costing needs to include all the optional visits — our first trip was hampered when half the group ran out of funds half way through the week!

Problems

One problem is the inability of many students to speak any French at all, despite five years study of it at school. Their inability to get up at dawn is another problem: this is when the world is at its most beautiful and action is beginning. They will get up before dawn for a vital bus or train — but then they seem unable to stay awake to see the country they've paid so much to visit. Perhaps it is linked with their inability to go to bed at night. Fortunately, alcohol is fairly expensive so hangovers are not too much of a problem. The unfamiliar food causes stomach problems inevitably, but apart from this our only medical difficulties have been German measles and incipient glandular fever.

Preparation remains a difficulty, but each visit has seen an improvement. On the assumption that a variety of two-page handouts are more likely to be read than heavy books, the policy has been little and often, using a great variety of sources which have been lithoed: hence each student builds up a resource file. (This is almost the only expense the college can legitimately cover).

It is clear, however, that many students do not read much of the material — or do not retain what they have read. Perhaps this is

inevitable; perhaps, also, some students read or re-read the handouts after they return. Each year we have tried to do more preparation on 'the world of Islam' — the history, religion and culture of the area — but somehow the discussion keeps returning to what clothes one should wear and which tummy-pills work best.

Even so, the problems have turned out to be fewer than might have been feared. It remains a very rewarding, but very exhausting, way of spending a week. I would only recommend it to other lecturers if they have been there before, if they know someone who is willing to be a hard-working deputy leader, and if they have a group of students that will be willing to respect another culture. Most of the students who have been on these visits think it has been the most educational week in their life. If education is to do with more than just gaining a certificate or a degree, this certainly seems a correct assessment — both in terms of immediate learning and long-term attitude-change. Equally important is the discovery that on another occasion free-lance travel is not impossible, and that even on a package-holiday one can soon get off the beaten track. Despite the problems mentioned above of students being asleep at the wrong moments, in general their serious interest, and their willingness to try to understand rather than criticise, has been one of the most rewarding features of the visits. Subsequently, fellow-students only hear the tallest of the stories, but hundreds of pupils in Norfolk schools have had some very interesting and up-to-date lessons.

DAVID WRIGHT

David Wright taught geography in a secondary school in Stevenage and social studies in a high school in Pittsburgh before moving to Keswick Hall College of Education, where he is now head of geography. He is the author of **Survival**, published by Penguin, and, with his wife Jill, of **The Changing World in the Classroom**, published by VCOAD. He contributed to the **Development Studies Handbook** published in 1977 by the School of Oriental and African Studies, London, and to the teaching notes for the **Intermediate Technology** slidesets published by the Centre for World Development Education, also in 1977. Details about the latter are available from CWDE at 25 Wilton Road, London SW1.

PEACE STUDIES — A NEW COURSE

An extremely interesting new initiative, the **Peace Studies Project**, has been taken by Atlantic College, the international college for 16-19 year-old students in South Wales. It is being funded by the Leverhulme Trust, and is related to the International Baccalaureate.

The **Peace Studies Project** involves a two-year academic course, and fieldwork in Northern Ireland. The syllabus involves study of concepts such as aggression, justice, violence, disarmament, peacemaking etc, and refers to topics such as the Arab-Israeli conflict, race relations, the North-South conflict, and the United Nations.

The Project will be producing curriculum materials in due course for use in other schools. A regular newsletter will also be available, free of charge. For further information, and to be on the Project's mailing list, write to Colin Reid, United World College of the Atlantic, St Donat's Castle, Llantwit Major, South Glamorgan CF6 9WF.

NEW FILMS

The most recent supplement to the Concord Film Catalogue, dated May 1978, contains details of about 200 films. The titles include **Arms for Kuwait**, **Children in Conflict**, **Four Thousand Million and One** — on world population, **Have our Planet and Eat it Too?** and **The Long Chain** — on multinational corporations. Details from Concord Films, 201 Felixstowe Road, Ipswich, Suffolk IP3 9BJ.

GLOBAL, LOCAL, PERSONAL, PROFESSIONAL

An interesting new course is starting in Liverpool in September 1978. It is intended mainly for teachers in secondary schools, and has four main parts: 'The human person, the family and the community'; 'Development within the local and national context'; 'Development within the global context'; and 'Man the communicator'.

The three main aims of the course, which involves 22 weekly meetings and two residential weekends, are as follows: 1) **To facilitate dialogue** between those engaged in teaching in school and those involved in education in the broader sense within the community. . . . 'Community' will be seen in local, national and global terms. 2) **To help develop awareness** so that the individual may be enabled to make fuller use of his/her potential and foster similar growth in others. 3) **To offer an introduction to certain approaches and skills** which could be of assistance in personal and community development.

The course is boldly pioneering, in its linking of local issues and global ones, and in bringing together, in this context, both personal growth and professional training. Papers and reports will in due course be available, and there will probably be an article in **The New Era**. In the meanwhile basic details are available from Sister Mary, Philip Rendall, Christ's College, Woolton Road, Liverpool L16 8ND.

The Council for Education in World Citizenship — forty years of support and challenge

Margaret Quass, Council for Education in World Citizenship, London

There are many organisations, in Britain as in other countries, which provide support, advice, materials, speakers, for teaching and learning in schools about contemporary world affairs. The oldest of the British organisations is CEWC, the Council for Education in World Citizenship, founded by Gilbert Murray and others in 1939.

In this article Margaret Quass, CEWC's director, outlines CEWC's activities and concerns — in particular its publications and conferences, including the annual Christmas Holiday Lectures, and its involvement with Unesco.

Introduction

'Please send us a speaker on China Today'; 'Can you provide up-to-date information about Cyprus and N. Ireland?' 'Where can I get a film strip about UNICEF?' 'Can you supply material for multi-racial morning assembly?' 'Where can I get a good film on the Commonwealth?' 'Please send a bibliography on Human Rights'; 'Can you help us arrange a conference on The World of Islam?' 'Please send a suggested course of lessons about the EEC'; 'How can my school enter for the International Baccalaureate?' 'What is the best world history text book?' 'Please find me an American pen-friend'; 'Three of my pupils want to spend holidays at a work-camp abroad . . .'; 'I am doing a thesis on international education . . .'; 'I am doing a school project on world hunger . . .'; 'How can I get a job with the United Nations?'

These are a random sample of the kinds of request which pour into the Bloomsbury office of the Council for Education in World Citizenship.

Ahead of its Time

In 1939, when CEWC was created, its aim — 'to promote through the education system such studies and teachings as may best con-



tribute to mutual understanding, peace and co-operation and goodwill between all peoples' — was perhaps ahead of its time. Now, nearly forty years on, it is accepted in the Government's Green Paper of summer 1977 that 'we live in a complex interdependent world, and many of our problems in Britain require international solutions. The curriculum should therefore reflect our need to know about and understand other countries', and at least three of the eight aims listed in that paper relate directly to the work of CEWC.

Does this mean that we have achieved our goal and can pack our bags?

Alas no. For aims and achievements are far removed. What it does mean is that official thinking has caught up with that of Gilbert Murray and his co-founders, and that suspicion, if not antagonism, has been replaced by at least a passive acceptance of the fact that 'since wars are created in the minds of men it is in the minds of men that the defences of peace must be constructed'.

Co-operation with other Agencies

It also means that CEWC is no longer alone in the field. Voluntary organisations have mushroomed, and if the life of some has been short, others have flourished. But these, unlike CEWC, are concerned with particular geographical or subject areas — Europe, NATO, the Commonwealth, The Environment, Development Education, Peace Studies and so on. They are all the more valuable for being specialised, but their separate interests still need to be placed in a wider perspective. Maybe CEWC's resilience is due to its broad spectrum, and its concern to publicise and collate the work of other agencies in a related field, rather than paddle its own canoe. Never do we allow the medium to become the message, and if other agencies are conveying the same message more effectively, we are grateful to them, and exploit their services unashamedly.

But there is more to it than this. While CEWC has influenced educational developments through the examination system, the UNESCO 1974 Recommendation, etc. it has also been influenced by them. No longer do we take large numbers of British school children to foreign countries (their own schools are now able to do this) unless, like China, they are difficult to reach otherwise. The New York Herald Tribune, with which we used to organise a National Youth Forum, is no more, and young people are no longer eager to assemble in uniform for UN Day rallies!

Services to Members

Instead we seek to provide the services that teachers and their pupils specifically ask for, namely . . . a current affairs broadsheet (Senior and Junior); a comprehensive speakers service; a world studies resource guide; regular annotated lists of new publications; Inter-Schools Conferences (Junior and Senior); and general information on any aspect of world studies in its widest context. Examples of recent conferences include: The Politics of the Media (600 seniors plus 400 rejected!) East Africa (400 Juniors); Japan (500 Juniors); China (500 Juniors). Subjects for school meetings range from Northern Ireland to Southern Africa, and Human Rights in the Soviet Union to Medicine in the Third

World. Preparatory reading, audience participation, report and follow-up, are essential ingredients for all meetings and conferences.

Annual Conference

The famous Christmas Holiday Lectures, now reduced in size from the days when 2,750 assembled in Central Hall, Westminster, still bring together many hundreds of young people from literally every corner of the United Kingdom (including the Orkneys and the Channel Islands!) with their counterparts from other countries, for a three-day Conference which gives them an opportunity to tackle thorny current issues in some depth and in small groups. As with every one of our activities, we are never satisfied and always determined to do better next time, but here are two typical re-actions. The first is from Andrew Franklin of Leighton Park School, Reading:

I must write to thank you for the enormous effort you must have all put into the conference. It was a marvellous success. Stimulating, provocative, interesting, educational and inspiring — it was all that a 6th form conference should be and more. It had an exceptionally warm, intimate and friendly atmosphere, and at the close on Sunday, people from all over the country, from Germany, Belgium and Denmark were to be seen feverishly exchanging names and addresses!

Since the conference, I have resolved to use my next eight months before going up to Oxford usefully. Instead of just working in France I have decided to try and get a place on a UNA camp in Europe, or failing that a CSV one here. I would say my case is typical of the influence the conference can exert, if people think about the issues raised.

The second is from Sue Smith of Queen Mary School, Lytham:

I wanted to tell you how much I enjoyed the conference. Words really fail to convey my appreciation. The atmosphere was just tremendous and experience of meeting all those different people of the world was wonderful. My hopes that nation borders were really artificial, unnatural and extremely unimportant are I am very happy

to say, absolutely confirmed.

The conference itself in my opinion could not have been bettered in any way. The speakers were excellent, and so were the organisers, whom I would like to thank very much.

I hope that there will be CEWC conferences for years to come and that they will be half as valuable as the one I had the fortune to attend . . .

United Nations Day

CEWC is responsible for distributing literature and information about the United Nations — particularly around United Nations Day each year (October 24) for which we produce a special Morning Assembly Kit and a list of suggested activities, and organise a conference at the House of Commons. We also produce a UN dossier.

New Projects

CEWC CYMRU, based in Cardiff, is already involved in several curriculum development projects and from September we shall have a resource centre at 43 Russell Square where teachers will be able to see and purchase up-to-date material and take part in workshops and other projects.

During 1979, the UN's International Year of the Child, we shall concentrate on developing our work in the primary sector and several exciting cultural projects are under way.

CEWC administrators, in the UK, UNESCO's Associated Schools Project, an international network operating in 65 countries, of which Shirley Williams said in her Marc Goldstein Memorial Lecture: 'One of the most exciting things about ASPRO is that its feedback is beginning to demonstrate the extent to which attitudes actually do change among school-children as a result of this approach towards international understanding.' Thirty institutions (primary, secondary, and teacher training) are at present in direct membership, and many more are indirectly associated.

Our constituency, once concentrated in the sixth forms of grammar and independent schools, now extends from preparatory and primary schools through comprehensive and independent ones to sixth form colleges and colleges of education, and in CEWC there is

no generation gap. Parents, teachers and students of all ages are involved.

Lack of Bias

We have succeeded in retaining the support of our members (currently over 1,600 schools and colleges) by seeking to avoid any trace of indoctrination or bias. If economic aid is the subject of a conference, a voice is given to those who oppose it: if the subject is apartheid, to those who defend it. Israelis and Arabs each put their arguments on CEWC platforms, as do all the political parties. It is only through absolute integrity that CEWC has earned the respect of all kinds of schools, LEAs — and governments! Teenagers are quick to reject over-statements and double standards, and it is no good asking young English or Scots to get away from their 'fish and chips' mentality, unless we are equally prepared to ask their Asian counterparts to get away from their 'curry and chapatti' one! (Many of those involved in development and world studies tend to 'lean over blackwards', thereby alienating those they seek to influence.)

Knowledge — Opinion — Action

Among the thousands of famous speakers who address CEWC meetings (they have included Bronowski, Cockcroft, Gaitskell, Hailsham, de Madariaga, Masaryk, Menuhin, Mountbatten, Myrdal, Pandit, Priestley, Rampahal, Soper, Suyin, Toynbee, van der Post) there is at least an attempt to retain a balance, and of over a hundred Current Affairs Broadsheets, only three have been criticised. But information, however objective, is not enough. More and more it is essential for young people to learn to read between the lines, listen between the words, interpret differing points of view, and come to an independent judgement.

When they have formulated their opinion, it is important that they are able to express it through democratic channels. And for those who want to do something practical to help, there is the very successful Co-operative Action Programme by which those in developed countries can assist their counterparts in the third world through the provision of education aids in such a way that

no trace of paternalism is involved nor a penny deducted or misspent. In Northern Ireland, where CEWC has a thriving district council, one school alone (in the centre of Belfast) raised £2,800 for selected projects in ten different countries. Students from every one of those were involved, and lasting links will be established between young people with differing problems, common aspirations and mutual respect. (It goes without saying that all CEWC activities in N. Ireland are inter-communal.) Voluntary Service was a major aspect of our last Annual Conference, and it is no accident that VSO was established following one of our AGMs.

Apart from inadequate resources (a total staff of seven — two in Wales, four in London and one in Scotland) CEWC's main problem is sometimes thought to be its name! But as against changing it (and to what?) is the fact that over 60,000 British men and women in all walks of life, and including six members of the present Cabinet (some might consider this a condemnation rather than a commendation!) have had their eyes opened, their

consciences awakened and their interest and concern nourished by attending CEWC's famous Christmas Holiday Lectures.

The acceptance of the educational needs of a rapidly changing world makes extra demands upon teachers already overwhelmed by other problems. CEWC exists to help them and future generations to meet the challenges of today and the aspirations of tomorrow.
MARGARET QUASS

Margaret Quass is director of the Council for Education in World Citizenship. CEWC's forthcoming activities include the publication of a booklet by Margaret Miles, to celebrate the fortieth anniversary; a meeting at the House of Commons on 17 July 1978, to be opened by Shirley Williams; several conferences for schools in various parts of UK, with titles such as 'Freedom', 'The Communist World', and 'World Food'; and a workshop for teachers in November 1978 on teaching about human rights. Further information about these activities, and about CEWC membership, is available from Margaret Quass, Council for Education in World Citizenship, 43 Russell Square, London WC1B 5DA.

TEACHING ABOUT PRIORITIES

'The United States and Soviet Union, first in military power, rank 18th and 33rd among all nations in their infant mortality rate. . . .

'The world's military budget equals the annual income of 1,800,000,000 people in the thirty-six poorest nations. . . .

'In two days the world spends on arms the equivalent of a year's budget for the United Nations and its specialised agencies.'

A really splendid kit of materials for teachers of social studies, available free of charge, has been prepared by the Rockefeller Foundation. It contains four items: **World Military and Social Expenditures** by Ruth Leger Sivard, which is a clear and authoritative survey of some of the main ways in which the governments of the world are currently spending money on health, education, and armaments; **Teachers Guide** by Betty Reardon, which suggests a very useful variety of activities for the social studies classroom with students in the 14-17 age-range; a fine poster; and a newspaper.

The kit, entitled **Global Studies Kit I**, is available on request from the Educational Publishing Program of the Rockefeller Foundation, 1133 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10036.

MINORITY RIGHTS GROUP

Two further excellent reports have recently been published by the Minority Rights Group, London. **Australia's Policy Towards Aborigines 1967-1977** begins with a quotation from Michael Dean: 'There is a kind of casual racialism at every level of Australian society . . . I recall a Melbourne businessman, puzzled by the response of white Americans to *Roots*, saying "Why didn't they just knock the buggers off like we did?", which was a reference to that perfect piece of genocide in Tasmania when late last century white hunting parties murdered to the last child a unique race of islanders.'

The report documents in detail the position of Aborigines in contemporary Australian society. It is, amongst other things, an extremely useful case-study for discussion and consideration of the legal situation of minorities in Western societies more generally, and of the possibilities of change.

Constitutional Law and Minorities, by Claire Palley, is a general discussion of the role of law in creating a just social order. It includes amongst other things a useful table comparing the legal situation of minorities in twelve different countries.

The reports cost 75p each, and are available from Minority Rights Group, 36 Craven St, London WC2N 5NG.



Centre for

World Development Education

RESOURCES FOR TEACHERS

The CWDE resource centre contains a wide range of books, pamphlets, fact sheets, wall charts, slide sets, photo sets, simulation games and classroom kits. **June 1978 Catalogue** available free — or come and look round (Monday to Friday, 9.30 — 5.30).

Specially recommended: **The Development Puzzle**, a handbook for teachers, including basic information on world development, teaching ideas, annotated lists of resources (£1.75 — **reduced to £1.50 if you mention this advert**).

JUST PUBLISHED

Village Industries by John and Penny Hubley — 5 sets of 20 colour slides and one set of 16 b/w photos on craftsmen and their place in the economy and social structure of an Indian village, with notes and teaching ideas showing how they can be used from primary to upper secondary and in different subject areas, from Art to Economics.

Set 1: **Earth and Clay**

Set 2: **Wood and Basketry**

Set 3: **Metal**

Set 4: **Cloth**

Set 5: **Sugar and Coconuts**

Photo set on first 4 themes

Slide sets cost £3.90+31p VAT each (10% discount on all 5)

Photos £1.15+9p VAT

20% discount to readers ordering all 6 sets and mentioning this advert

Dept. NE, Centre for World Development Education
Parnell House, 25 Wilton Rd., London, SW1V 1JS.

Education for the Global Age — a review of three main trends

Lee Anderson, Northwestern University, USA

This article consists of edited extracts from a book to be published later this year by the Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives in Education, Indiana University. It serves here as a summary of the main concerns in this issue of *The New Era* as a whole.

Professor Anderson distinguishes three main trends in the task of internationalising the curriculum, and likens these to three rivers joining together. First, there is the trend to 'globalise the content of learning': this recalls the articles by Barbara Ward and Godfrey Brown, which are concerned with the school curriculum as a whole, and also the articles by David Selby, Hilary Cox and Hugh Starkey, which are concerned with particular courses.

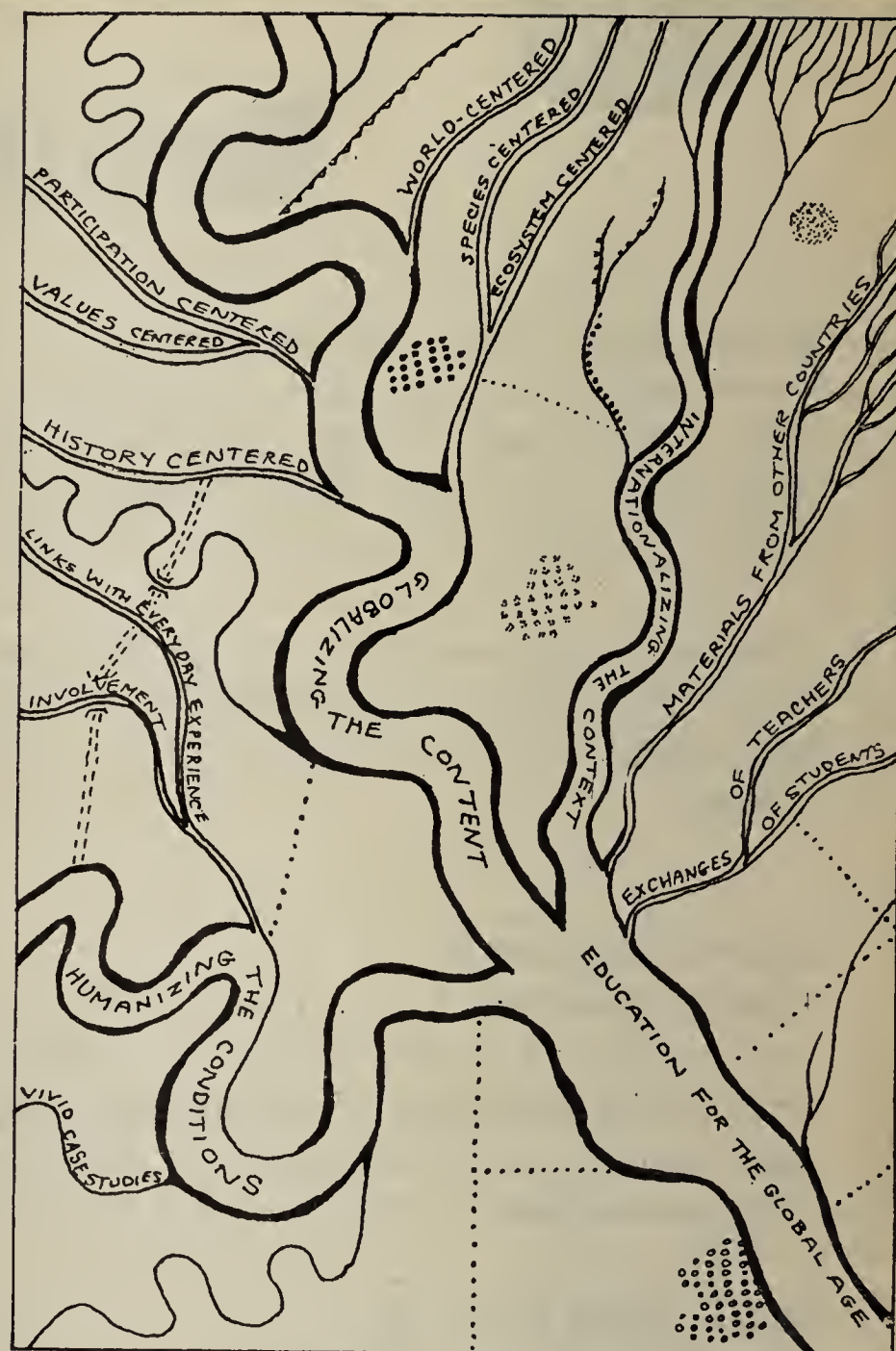
Second, there is the trend to 'humanise the conditions of learning': this recalls in particular the article by Barbara Clark, and also some points touched on by Gajendra Verma and Kanka Mallick, and by Hugh Starkey's pupils at Ely.

Third, there is the trend to 'internationalise the context of learning': for example by seeing the multiracial school as a resource rather than as a problem (Verma and Mallick), by arranging study visits abroad (David Wright), by arranging for teachers to work abroad (Godfrey Brown), and by fostering international contacts and friendships amongst teachers (Michael Wright in his profile of Nasrine Adibe).

Introduction

We are living through one of the great revolutionary transformations of the human condition. One major facet of this transformation is a rapid globalisation of the human condition. The human condition is becoming globalised in the sense that the social, biotic, and physical environments surrounding us, and on which we depend and on which we impact, are becoming more global in scope.

What does all this mean for education? In its most basic and broadest sense the globalisation of the human condition — the emergence of a global age — constitutes a profound and still poorly understood challenge to the way we formally and nonformally educate children and young people about the world into which they have been born. Our educational institutions, our operating philosophies of education and our educa-



tional practices developed in a pre-global era. Hence it is highly unlikely that our inherited ways of educating young humans about the world they will inherit from us are wholly appropriate to their needs, or to the needs of society, or to the needs of the human species. But what should be changed? What can be changed? How can desired changes be brought about?

Let me begin my exploration of the answers to such questions with a few examples of recent efforts to change how students are educated about the world. These are shown in Table One.

On the surface the various items in Table One may appear to be a motley array of dis-

TABLE ONE: SOME RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

Several states have mandated courses on 'non-western studies'.

Many school districts are engaged in efforts to infuse environmental education into the K-12 curriculum.

Organisations within and outside of government are encouraging and supporting the international exchange of teachers and students.

Innovative teachers in countless schools are finding new ways to use community resources in teaching students about the world.

Associations of scholars are working to improve the quality of instructional materials dealing with Asia, the Middle East, Africa, and Latin America.

Many schools are initiating new courses in anthropology.

Curriculum developers are producing materials in world history and world geography that depart from a region approach.

More teachers are using role playing, simulations, case studies and comparable techniques in efforts to dramatise, personalise and generally humanise instruction about people, places, and events removed in time and space from the lives of their students.

Educators representing several nations are meeting to plan and work on instructional materials that can be commonly used in the schools of several nations.

Private organisations are working with schools in attempts to enhance students' understanding of problems such as world hunger, warfare, resource utilisation, pollution, and so on.

Student councils are organising hunger marches, meatless Wednesdays, car washes and other projects actively involving students in world affairs.

Innovative teachers are initiating new courses involving students in the examination of alternative futures.

Science and social studies teachers are joining forces in creating multidisciplinary studies of the human species and its natural environment.

Humanities teachers reorganise courses to incorporate into them more literature, art, and music from the non-western world and from different ethnic groups within the United States.

connected events. But beneath the surface there is a unifying structure. Each of these events is an episode in a complex, diffuse and unplanned process of educational change that is evolving in response to the challenge generated by the increasing globalisation of the human condition. When one tries to map this process intellectually it resembles three river systems, each of which consists of a network of partly interconnected and partly independent rivers.

One broad stream of activity consists of

efforts to globalise the content of education. A second broad stream consists of efforts to internationalise the context of education. A third broad stream consists of efforts to humanise conditions of learning.

Globalising the content

When I speak of efforts to globalise the content of education, I have in mind efforts to alter the way the world is portrayed or treated in the curriculum of schools. If one goes back thirty or forty years in history I think we can fairly characterise the world-view communicated to students by the curriculum in the following manner. The curriculum portrayed the world from:

An Euro-centric perspective

A region-centric perspective

A group-centric perspective

A state-centric perspective

A past-centric perspective

An anthropo-centric perspective

An information-centric perspective

A spectator-centric perspective

In an increasingly global age this type of image of the world is becoming inaccurate, and progressively more dysfunctional for individuals as well as society. Hence there have been efforts in the last couple of decades to move from a Euro-centric treatment of events to a world-centred one; from a region-centric and state-centric view of events to views which see the world as a single system or society; from a group-centric view to a view which emphasises that human beings are a single biological species; from an anthropo-centric view of the world to a view which emphasises that human beings are part of, not above or outside, a fragile ecological system; from a past-centric view of events to a history-centred one; and from information-centric and spectator-centric approaches in education to approaches which emphasise the importance of problem-solving, values, and active participation in society.

Internationalising the context

The context of American education is becoming more international albeit slowly. There are four main trends worth recalling. First, the number is increasing of teachers and other school personnel who have some

type of professionally oriented travel or study experience in other nations. Second, the number of schools utilising 'international resources' available in the community (e.g. foreign students, individuals involved in international business, etc) is also increasing. Third, student exchange programs are bringing non-American students into American schools and American students into the schools of other nations. Fourth, instructional materials produced in other nations are coming to be used in American schools, and transnational curriculum development projects are underway.

Humanising the conditions

As I recall, much of my own education about the world took place under conditions of learning that were for the most part personally remote, passive, and non-humanistic. By personally remote, I simply mean that much of my education was not personally meaningful in the sense that I have learned to perceive a relationship between what I was studying and my own experience. When I refer to my education as passive I simply mean that I was not actively engaged in the process of learning. In speaking of my education as non-humanistic I refer to the fact that the world about which I learned was populated largely by impersonal forces such as exploration, colonisation, industrialisation, and urbanisation in contrast to a world populated by concrete individuals who went to the bathroom, got hungry, had fears, got mad, experienced love and hate as I do. I did not emotionally visit many flesh and blood explorers; nor did I drop in on a day in the life of colonist or colonised; nor did I in imagination work side by side with a worker on an assembly line.

We are beginning to realise that the condition under which students learn about the world is of equal importance to the content and context of this education. Out of this simple but basic realisation are coming efforts to render education about geographically distant and historically remote phenomena more personally meaningful by linking these phenomena to the everyday experience of students.

For example, teachers are experimenting with strategies designed to engage students as active participants in the processes of moral deliberation, empirical enquiry, and philosophical analysis, and in social action in relation to world affairs. There is an increasing number of efforts to use vivid case studies, diaries, letters, and similar literary means to depict the basic facts that concrete individuals are the chromosomes of history, and that the emotions, needs, perceptions, decisions, and actions of individuals are the genes whose continually changing combinations and recombinations underlie both the continuity and change visible in the human experience.

LEE ANDERSON

Lee Anderson is professor of political science and education at Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. During the last ten years he has been the author or co-author of several seminal articles on global education, world studies, education for international understanding etc. These include the papers referred to at the end of the article here by David Selby and Hilary Cox, and a major contribution to **Education for a World in Change**, published by the Center for Global Perspectives, New York.

Further information about the book from which this article is taken is available from the Mid-America Program for Global Perspectives, 513 North Park Avenue, Bloomington, Indiana 47401.

CHANGE IN THE SCHOOL

The Charles F. Kettering Foundation, based in Dayton, Ohio, has recently started a new project in collaboration with the North Central Association's Commission on Schools. It is entitled **School Improvement through Global Education**, and the ideas behind it are outlined by Jon Rye Kinghorn in an article in **Network News**, April 1978, available free of charge from the Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 5335 Far Hills Avenue, Dayton, Ohio 45429.

DIRECTORY OF ORGANISATIONS

About 80 organisations and 60 periodicals, in about 18 different countries, are listed in **A Preliminary Directory of Organisations and Publications for Peace and World Order Educators**, published in spring 1978. The directory was initiated and researched by Betty Reardon, and is available free of charge from the Transnational Academic Program, Institute for World Order, 1140 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10036, USA.

WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

— profile of a member

Michael Wright, London

Dr Nasrine Adibe is president of the US section of the World Education Fellowship. She has organised a number of WEF sponsored conferences in New York and will be hosting the WEF International Conference to be held at the Hoyt Conference Center in Ypsilanti, Michigan, on August 15-21, 1978.

I interviewed her on a visit she made to London in September last year, and learned something of her remarkable life, and her career in education over the last 25 years.

Born into an upper class Ottoman family in Istanbul, of a Kurdish mother and an Arab father, she was brought up in a Moslem home permeated by Arabic, French, and Turkish cultures. Her childhood and early education took place in the turbulent period following the First World War, which saw the collapse of the Ottoman Empire and the rise of Kemal Attaturk, and the awakening of the Arab world. Her family, as Ottomans, were forced to leave Turkey after Attaturk's coup and her early schooling took place in various private schools in the Middle East, mainly French, British and American. She graduated from the University in Beirut, Lebanon, majoring in Biology. Her dreams of going into graduate studies in science and research were then replaced by the reality of accepting a teaching position in a girls' secondary school in Baghdad, Iraq, until she duly married a Lebanese diplomat with the consent of her parents. She had a daughter, who is currently working for a doctorate. The marriage lasted three years.

I asked about her life style at that time, and she recalled the time spent in parties, social functions, concern with fashions, time to enjoy the arts and to meditate. 'I certainly enjoyed every bit of it, but had it lasted longer, I am sure I would have been bored to tears.' She talked too with pride about several of the girls to whom she taught science, who by now have received their doctorates in various sciences and are engaged in research in Europe and the United States as well as the Middle East.

A second phase

The second phase of Nasrine's life opened with conflict and revolt: reorganising her life after the breakdown of her marriage, as a mother committed to raising her daughter, and as a woman pursuing her career in a male-dominated society.

She accepted a teaching position at the College of Pharmacy in Baghdad, and was the first woman to teach at a co-educational college. This was followed by a position at UNESCO in Paris, and a fellowship to the United States, where she received an MS in Science Education at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor. On her return to Baghdad, she created the need for, and then headed, the Department of Instructional Materials at the University of Education.

She was the only woman then holding such a high administrative position. Later, she accepted the position of a science education specialist offered by UNESCO and was stationed in Tripoli, Libya.

The need for new horizons and self-development, and the necessity to provide richer educational opportunities for her daughter, brought her to the United States in 1959. She earned graduate degrees while teaching science in various secondary schools and teaching courses in education at different colleges. She received her doctorate from Teachers College, Columbia University, and while there joined the World Education Fellowship. At present she is teaching at the Graduate School of Education at CW Post Center of Long Island University.

When invited to become the WEF President of the US Section, she accepted enthusiastically in spite of her many other commitments.

Tensions and responses

I asked her how she resolved the conflicts that may have existed between her training in science and the beliefs of her traditional faith. And what conflicts did she encounter bringing up a daughter in a culture different from the one in which she herself was brought up? 'I believe in the essence and spirit of Islam', she said, 'rather than its traditional practices. Although like many others I rebelled in my youth, I have found great spiritual solace in the ideas of Islam as a mature adult, and feel these ideas have great significance for all mankind. As a mother I had to go through a lot of soul searching as to what values to practise at home and to instill in my daughter. It meant I was constantly evaluating every value and every attitude, and all their implications. Now that I look back, I became a better person as I was helping my daughter to mature into a responsible and happy young woman. Basic human values are universal even though people of different religions and cultures may manifest them differently.'

I asked her what she thought were the main themes emerging from her life and work. 'The need for people, especially in developing countries, to be liberated through education, without neglecting the vital role of science in developing intellectual skills. The cultural need of incorporating ethical education throughout one's schooling. The urgency of becoming aware of and eliminating prejudices, particularly those based on sex. The importance of perceiving individuals in this world as sharing common universal human characteristics rather than categorising them according to their differences.'

As a person I found Nasrine outgoing with a sense of humour, enthusiastic, and with imaginative ideas grounded in logic from her training in the sciences. It says much for her that she was able to resolve her conflicts in a creative way, and has been capable of inspiring others with her example.

I asked Nasrine who had most influenced her work in science education, and she replied that it was Jean Piaget. It is therefore no surprise that she has devoted a great deal of time and energy to studying and promoting his ideas, which she feels are still not

sufficiently understood and applied by teachers and others concerned with education. Apart from lectures and workshops this activity has included a WEF Sponsored conference 'A Day with Piaget' and a Piaget Film Festival, and she was the principal contributor to the recent issue of **The New Era** devoted to the work of Piaget.

I concluded my interview with Nasrine Adibe by asking about her activities with the WEF, as a member and now as President of the US Section. She replied that she had represented the WEF singly or in a panel of WEF members at many national, state and international conferences by presenting papers or workshops which promoted WEF views and attitudes on education. More recently, these have included international conferences in Sydney (1976), Ankara (1976), New Orleans (1977) and Mexico City (1978). She has compiled a directory of US WEF members' interests to promote closer links within and outside the WEF, and has endeavoured to link WEF, through members with common interests, with organisations such as the US National Science Teachers' Association and the Comparative International Education Society.

Nasrine feels that these links will help to widen the scope and influence of the Fellowship, particularly in the field of ethics and the ethical aspect of science education. She is greatly looking forward to the WEF International Conference in Michigan, and has suggested that non-US members might welcome the opportunity of being hosted by US members before or after the Conference. This is clearly an idea which could be pursued to the advantage of WEF members attending future WEF International Conferences elsewhere.

MICHAEL WRIGHT

Michael Wright is a lecturer in physics at University of London Goldsmiths' College. He is an editor of **The New Era**, and was responsible for the recent issue (May 1978) on the life and work of Jean Piaget.

'TIME TO TAKE STOCK'

A meeting entitled **International Education — Time to Take Stock** is taking place at the House of Commons, London, on Monday 17 July 1978 at 2 pm. It is being opened by Shirley Williams, and the speakers include Robert Blackburn, Margaret Devitt, Margaret Miles, Ted O'Connor, Robin Richardson, Gordon Scotney and Michael Storm. The chairman is Christopher Price. The meeting is being arranged by the Council for Education in World Citizenship, from whom further information is available at 43 Russell Square, London WC1B 5DA.

MONTESSORI CONGRESS

The Nineteenth International Montessori Congress will be in Amsterdam, 9-13 April 1979, and will be entitled '**Help the child to shape man's future!**' Information available from the Municipal Congress Bureau, Oudesijds, Achterburgwal 199, 1012 DK Amsterdam, Netherlands.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

The Standing Conference on Studies in Education is organising a conference on 17 December 1978 at King's College, London, entitled **Definitions of Progressive Education**. The speakers include **James Henderson**, chairman of the World Education Fellowship; **Robin Hodgkin**, whose much-discussed radio broadcast of summer 1977 on schooling in the year 2000 was published in **The New Era** in January/February 1978; **Professor Leslie Perry** of King's College, London; and **Professor Stewart** of the University of Keele.

Further details are available from Professor Alan Blyth, School of Education, 19 Abercrombie Square, PO Box 147, Liverpool L69 5BX.

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THE NEW ERA

Journal of the World Education Fellowship

Vol. 59 No. 5: September/October 1978



CONTINUING EDUCATION

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CONTINUING EDUCATION

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Editorial: Continuing Education

This is the fifth issue of **Ideas** to appear in **The New Era**. Both of these educational journals have been developed to promote discussion on interdisciplinary lines: **Ideas** by tackling its task through the use of themes; **The New Era** working on an international plane as befits the journal of the World Education Fellowship.

In view of the effectiveness of each of these approaches in promoting educational dialogue, it seemed appropriate to join them together so that an issue of **Ideas/The New Era** could present a cross-national study of an educational concern which traverses national boundaries.

For this study we chose the theme 'Continuing Education'. We assumed that such a global theme would provide scope for discussion about educational practice which involves schools, colleges, universities, and the community viewed generally; and which might be called variously 'schooling', 'recurrent education', 'in-service education', 'teacher education', 'life-long education' of the concept of continuing education as well the choice of theme for this exercise in cross-national/international collaboration. The contributions we have received from people in eight countries reveal an anticipated degree of 'common concern' for the application of the concept of continuing education as well as an equally predictable degree of variety in the ways some of the peoples of the world are dealing with the problems. Some of the contributions reflect a pressing concern for fresh approaches to the education of teachers, others for the needs of the education of adults generally, and two of the articles look sympathetically at the education of young children and of parents respectively. From this collection of essays culled from the four corners of the world, it is apparent that the truism, 'We have a lot to learn from each other', is not to be denied.

But, for those who have produced this issue of **Ideas**, we hope that it will not be viewed solely as an

exercise in 'comparative education' important though such studies are. The act of collaboration among the associate editors of **The New Era** and the journal's co-editors is an important internal event; but we hope that it exemplifies the value of such cross-national involvement in general terms. We are asserting that if we can learn from each other, then we might be able to help each other with the exchange of ideas, of statements of priorities in education, of an understanding of the variations of scale upon which each of us works in the name of education. A programme for dealing with the needs of 100 million illiterates in India must overshadow the efforts to help the growing number of people aged fifty or over in New York City or London; and it no doubt throws some light on the developing programme to teach science (chemistry in this case) through the universal understanding we have of mathematics, or a programme for teaching parents how to support their children educationally, morally, physically; but although differing in scale, each of the programmes presented in this issue shows the common and highly human quality of being **concerned for others** which is, surely, at the heart of education and those who join this aspect of living as teachers.

As editor, I have acted as the clerical-pivot for a fascinating cross-national study. Fiona Bell Currie used the stamps I received to design and draw our cover. Colleagues in Britain have lent me their linguistic talents as translators. (One article has been abridged but presented in its language of origin to emphasise the multitude of tongues spoken by our contributors.) It has been a most enjoyable experience tapping the network of the World Education Fellowship and illustrating the potential of the 'world-wide laboratory' that already exists. My personal thanks to all who have contributed to **Ideas** No. 38/**The New Era** No. 5.

LESLIE A. SMITH

Continuing and In-service Education: Current and Projected Developments in India

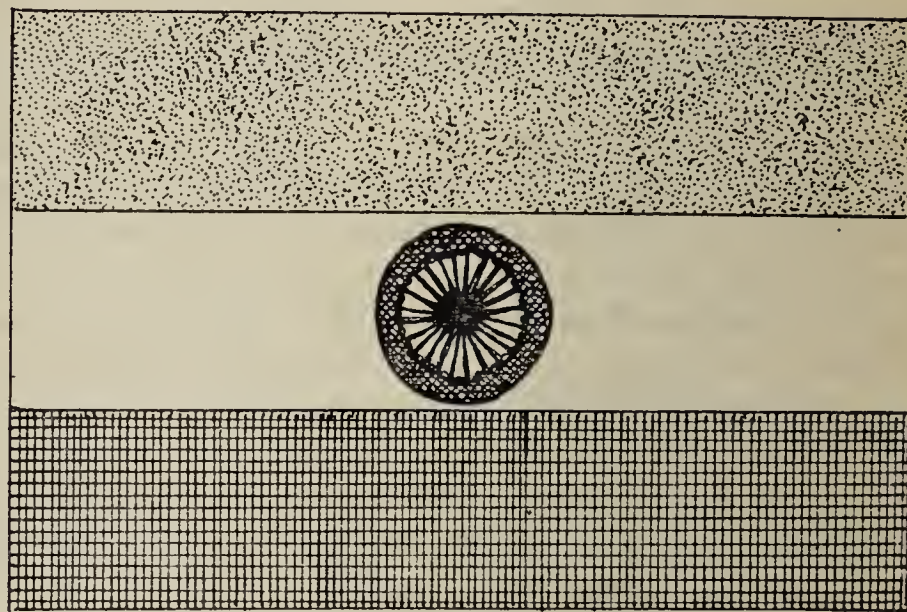
Dr (Mrs) Madhuri R. Shah, Vice-Chancellor, S.N.D.T., Women's University, Bombay and President, World Education Fellowship

Current Trends

We are on the threshold of a new era in education which lays emphasis on the development and sustenance of a 'learning society' whose greatest departure from traditional education is its two basic premises — that opportunity should be equal for all who wish to learn and that learning is a lifelong process unconfined to one's youth or to study in classrooms and campuses. This concept of learning, as also the emergence of a new student clientele with their aspirations, brings into focus the whole philosophy of continuing education.

Moreover, few innovations in higher education have been more readily accepted by a diverse cross-section of people and institutions, than nonformal education in its various forms — open university, university without walls, continuing education, adult education, extension education and others.

The present educational system is lopsided and alienates students from the common man. There is stress mainly on the academic aspect which makes it uni-dimensional. A university giving away degrees, disseminating information to a limited number of scholars or directing research is just one aspect which could be called a minor aspect, but rendering service to the society around has now become a major responsibility of the university. The present elitist role of the universities has to undergo rapid change. The new role is to bring to the attention of students the problems of society they live in and help them to find answers to them. This can be achieved by developing problem-solving capabilities in the younger generation which would equip them to face the realities of the world they live in and develop a new philosophy that is needed by a collective society to meet the emerging needs of a dynamic and rapidly changing environment.



Society has two groups — the literate and the illiterate. Unfortunately, even though the rate of literacy has gone up from 14% in 1947 to nearly 35% in 1971, the population explosion has increased the number of illiterates. Those who are educated are able, in a very small way, to keep pace with changes facing today's world. But the others are lagging far behind and have thus got into a state of isolation and live in a closed world and have not the mental frame to accept anything new. This imbalance requires to be set right very quickly and educational institutions have a big role to play in meeting this need on a 'war footing'.

Under these changed circumstances, universities must consider alternative channels outside the formal structure. One such alternative is that nonformal education and extension education should form an integral part of this stream.

Reviewing the current progress in this field, we find that several universities in India, during the last decade, have set up Departments of Continuing Education, and the University Grants Commission gave a high priority to it in the Fifth Plan period (1974-79). The main thrust of the programmes has been on extension programmes for enrichment and inservice courses for special groups

based on their special needs. These broadly cover programmes for:

- * Professional and industrial workers in trade and industry, medical practitioners, teachers, nurses, librarians and others to upgrade their competence and professional skills.
- * Housewives for inculcating a better understanding of children, family life problems, status in society, creative work and so on.
- * General public for enrichment of personality, appreciation of culture, art and literature, training in certain skills and bringing awareness about certain vital issues in political and social life.
- * Parents for understanding of current problems, deprivation in children and so on.
- * Rural community for health, nutrition, working of co-operatives, etc.
- * Students for utilising their talents and developing leisure time activities that would enrich their personality.

These programmes can be divided into different categories like extension lectures and discussion meetings and seminars ranging from a few hours to a few weeks, short courses of two to three months for development of skills and updating of professional knowledge and longer courses leading to certificates and diplomas.

Some of the universities include the programme of correspondence courses or distance learning and open university programmes also under the umbrella of Continuing Education.

On a review of the work done at different institutions, it is observed that programmes though touching a wide variety of subjects were conducted on an ad hoc basis and catered to the needs of only certain sections of the community. Continuing or Adult Education in fact is needed by the 'masses' much more than the 'classes'. Focusing its attention on this lacuna, the present Government prepared a comprehensive Policy Statement on Adult Education. As a national policy, it has been decided to universalise elementary education up to the age of 14 years (which today covers only 70% of that age group), and extend educational facilities to an adult population of approximately 100 million illiterates in

the age group of 15-35 years within the next five years. This thinking is based on the assumption that if the illiterate and the deprived are given an opportunity, they can rise to their own liberation through literacy, by developing their own potentiality and self-directed action. Under the circumstances, education can no longer be limited to selected and traditional spheres but has to be extended to include the needs of socially and economically backward sections of the community.

With the main objective of providing them education with functional literacy as an indispensable component, through skills for self-directed learning, leading to self-reliant and active role in their own development and the development of their environment, the National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) will be launched on 2 October 1978, the birthday of Mahatma Gandhi, and the first year will be a period of intensive preparation. Different agencies will organise programmes within their resources but generally within the framework of the Policy Statement accepted by the Government of India. To ensure the effectiveness of the programme, several organisations, governmental, non-governmental, voluntary and social, will have to combine their efforts to achieve this colossal and staggering task through a mass movement. It will also be necessary to develop a resource base to prepare learning materials and give training to different cadres of workers. Universities and educational institutions would have an important role to play in this programme, especially on the instructional side.

The programmes will have to be continuously monitored and evaluated for feedback and taking the work further; and students, youth workers, teachers, governmental and other functionaries and voluntary social workers will provide the manpower for this national building work.

Projected Developments

The major developments during the next 5-10 years will be to meet the target laid down for educating the adult illiterates. This is a gigantic and challenging task but a task which has to be met for the country's progress and well-being. The majority in the

target group of 15-35 years are women and exclusion of vast masses of people from educational opportunities affects women much more than men. The size of the problem is very large as the following statistics will show:

Adult illiteracy in the age-group 15+ according to 1971 figures is over 80% for women as against 52% in men. The rate increases as the level of deprivation rises. The main reasons for the exclusion of women from the learning process are the discriminatory attitude of society towards them and the constraints of their multiple role.

Hence, under the NAEP, greater stress will have to be laid on the needs of women so as to make them more conscious of their rights by providing them access to knowledge related to health, child care, nutrition, family planning, etc., by assisting them to be economic contributors and also to learn productivity skills to be able to stand on their own. The different categories of women which can be covered under this programme are women in the organised sector, workers in semi-organised industries and rural women. This programme visualises that since all types of groups on a country-wide level will be participating in this national effort, it will bring them face to face with the problems and realities of life in rural and poor areas.

In every walk of life extension programmes will be necessary, be it to enhance the professional level or to improve skills or to focus attention on new trends and developments in knowledge.

Two crucial problems of poverty and illiteracy which face India are related to inadequate rural development and wastage through dropouts. Integrated rural development programmes and continuing education programmes will have to be systematically planned and accelerated to meet these needs.

The demand for new knowledge to keep up with technological advances and the great need to raise the standard of life of the hitherto neglected sections of society will be the two main aspects of extension programmes in this country over the next few years and projections will have to be worked out to meet this growing need. Increasing demands on

education will perforce open out alternative channels to the formal system of education which will lead to greater elasticity and flexibility of work so that no person who desires to learn and gain knowledge will be denied the facility.

The frontiers of poverty and illiteracy extend far beyond state or national boundaries. The experience and insight of different countries will have to be shared with others by mutual exchange and continuing communication. The Nation's destiny is at stake, and people working in the field will have to learn with all humility from those who have developed special capabilities in the remotest corners of our country as well as the world.

Towards the end I would like to quote from an old Chinese poem which succinctly describes our role in the process of continuing or adult education and if we, the co-workers in this process of learning, remember the indicators, we will be able to work in a more positive way to meet the goal:

“Go to the people
Live among them
Learn from them
Love them
Start with what they know
Build on what they have;

But of the best leaders
When their task is accomplished
Their work is done
The people all remark,
‘We have done it ourselves’.”

Our thanks to Kallolini Hazarat, Associate Editor in India, for obtaining this contribution from the President of the World Education Fellowship, Dr Madhuri Shah. (Ed.)

FOCUS ON HINDUISM

Focus on Hinduism: Audio-Visual Resources for the Study of Religion is a reference guide for teachers available from Learning Resources in International Studies, Suite 1231, 60 East 42nd St, New York, NY 10017, price 4 dollars. A free catalogue of other materials is available from the same address. These include a learning package developed by Kenneth and Elise Boulding, entitled **Introduction to the Global Society: Interdisciplinary Perspectives**.

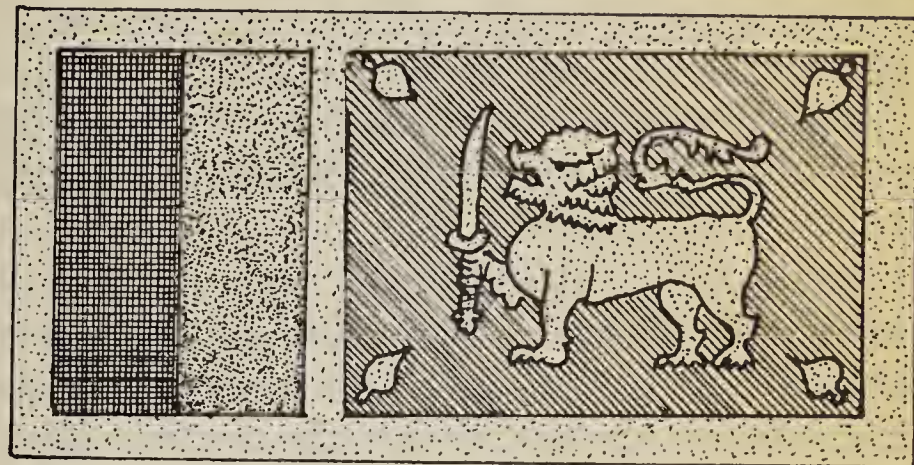
Continuing and In-Service Education: Current and Projected Developments in Sri Lanka

Swarna Jayaweera, Faculty of Education, University of Sri Lanka, Colombo

Continuing and in-service education in Sri Lanka was not a focal point of interest in modern education policy-making or implementation till very recent times. It was almost completely overshadowed by the over-emphasis on the formal education system which was geared by and large to the needs of youth with little flexibility or scope for re-entry or for adult participation.

Several factors have contributed to this situation. The modern system of education developed in nineteenth and twentieth century colonial Sri Lanka was modelled on metropolitan educational institutions in England. The elementary and secondary schools, the University College and handful of vocational institutions begun during this time were highly formalised institutions catering for a limited and specific clientele. There was a dichotomy between the new system and the traditional indigenous non-formal educational structures which had been the centres of vocational education and on-the-job training and which were now relegated to near obsolescence. Within the new system itself the monetary and social rewards of formal academic education in the context of the colonial economy led to the stagnation and failure of other forms of education.

After political independence in the mid-twentieth century, the social demand for the extension of educational opportunities led to a concentration on the linear expansion of the education system. Slow economic growth prevented the diversification of the education system, and while the provision of free primary, secondary and tertiary (including University) education from 1945 accelerated the spread of literacy and general education, vocational and adult education continued to be the cinderellas of the education system. During the last decade, however, financial constraints which limit the expansion of the formal education system and large-scale un-



employment of school leavers have highlighted the need for alternate forms of education to meet individual and social needs.

Current provision of continuing and in-service education

In Sri Lanka 60% of the population are under 24 years of age, and 8,673 schools provide educational facilities for 71% of the primary school age group and about 40% of the secondary school age group. Continuing education in the form of pre-service and in-service education is provided in a small number of educational institutions and through in-service training schemes.

Higher Education: The four Universities which had developed in Sri Lanka by the nineteen sixties were amalgamated in 1972 into one University with six campuses (the original four Universities, a College of Technology raised to University status and a new campus in the North). Two other campuses are planned for 1978-79, and the projected re-organisation of the University under the new University Bill in preparation provides for six independent Universities and new campuses or colleges functioning under the supervision of a University Grants Commission and the Ministry of Higher Education.

These University institutions have a total enrolment of 16,433 of whom 38% are women students. They provide higher education opportunities for a little over 1% of the relevant

age-group, and only about 8% of candidates seeking entry through a highly competitive examination are successful in gaining admission. Alternative opportunities for higher education are limited to a Law College, 5 Polytechnics offering intermediate level technical courses, and privately organised courses in management and accountancy. The External Services Agency of the University provides an opportunity for obtaining external degrees and the Workers' Education programme offers a second chance to those already employed in the urban sector.

Teachers' College: In Sri Lanka, Teachers' Colleges no longer offer pre-service education to those seeking to join the teaching profession. Currently 28 Teachers' Colleges provide two years in-service education for over 5,000 teachers, largely in areas of the curriculum where there is a shortage of teachers of science, mathematics, English, commerce, agriculture, home-science and aesthetic studies. In addition the Curriculum Development Centre and the Ministry of Education provide short-term in-service and correspondence courses to supplement this programme.

Vocational educational institutions: Such institutions are rather limited in range as the following list indicates: (i) 5 Polytechnics, 2 Technical Colleges and 8 Junior Technical Institutes; (ii) One Agricultural School and 13 Practical Farm Schools; (iii) 8 Nursing Schools and 6 other small institutions for para-medical training; (iv) School of Social Work; (v) Institute of Aesthetic Studies; (vi) School of Co-operation; (vii) Hotel School.

Together these offer opportunities for full-time and in-service education for approximately 20,000 students.

Vocational Courses: These courses are provided by State Departments and Corporations, private sector employers and voluntary organisations. The contributions of the private sector and voluntary organisations are limited; and State organisations are chiefly concerned with training their own employees.

Practically all state departments and corporations have their in-service education

courses which range from technical and trade apprenticeship, small industries and rural development, agricultural extension, stenography, to training of probation and sports officers. The total enrolment in such programmes is not large.

Special programmes are: (a) the National Apprenticeship Board established in 1971 which places school leavers in state and private industrial establishments as technical and trade apprentices; (b) the National Youth Service Council training programmes in agriculture and industries in rural centres; (c) the technical programmes for school leavers and distance education courses organized by the Ministry of Education and located in schools; (d) the training centres of the Department of Labour which equip the unemployed with skills such as carpentry, masonry and tailoring.

Private sector establishments also organize training and apprenticeship courses for their employees but regular programmes are found in only a handful of the larger establishments. In the urban areas private polytechnics and 'tutories' offer commercial and other courses for school leavers.

Voluntary organisations working in rural and urban areas provide training programmes in traditional and new vocational skills. Among these are also religious organisations such as the All Ceylon Buddhist Congress, the YMCA and the YWCA and organisations such as Sarvodaya and Women's organisations (e.g. the Lanka Mahila Samithiya).

As evident from this summary of educational facilities, continuing education in Sri Lanka is viewed essentially as the provision of opportunities for professional advancement and for the acquisition of vocational skills. A few voluntary organisations provide programmes with non-vocational content based on citizenship norms or religious values, but as in other countries with economic problems, general education for adults has been considered to be somewhat of a luxury which the country cannot afford. Literacy programmes have had no place in Sri Lanka during the past few decades, a result, perhaps, of a complacency falsely engendered by the fact that 78% of the popu-

lation (85% of men and 70% of women) are literate.

The Future

In Sri Lanka, as in many other countries, the education system has failed to meet both demands and needs as a result of economic constraints. In quantitative terms, 10% of school age children do not enter school at all at Grade I, and only about 60% of those who enter succeed in completing primary education. 15% qualify for higher secondary education at the GCE (Ordinary Level) and another 10% are able to continue their education through vocational courses. At the terminal point of secondary education (the GCE Advanced Level), tertiary education opportunities are available for less than 10% of those enrolled in senior secondary classes. The majority of secondary school leavers are unemployed, and are concerned with the acquisition of employable skills which will facilitate entry into a restrictive and competitive labour market, while those employed are anxious to improve their skills. At the same time 'adult' education courses are necessary to enhance the quality of life and individual self-fulfilment.

In the past few years there has been considerable academic discussion and thinking with regard to the need for alternative strategies and innovations leading to a more open education structure. Concepts such as life-long education, recurrent education and the learning society are still largely theoretical constructs, but there is increasing awareness that education cannot be confined to youth in educational institutions, and that the cycle of education, work and retirement as a series of dichotomous activities is no longer tenable. Efforts are being made to extend facilities to those who wish to continue education as well as to offer a 'second chance' or 'compensatory' programmes to the educationally underprivileged through part time and correspondence courses.

Projected schemes for implementation in the immediate future include: (i) the expansion of tertiary education facilities through the establishment of new campuses and polytechnics; (ii) the amalgamation of the external services agency of the University of Sri

Lanka, the Workers' Education programme of the University, and the Distance education unit of the Ministry of Education into an Open University; (iii) the organization of non-formal training programmes and non-vocational adult education centres in rural and urban locations and in development schemes.

In-service education is not a new concept in Sri Lanka, but in view of the large number of out-of-school children, unemployed school leavers and adults with limited educational and cultural experiences there is need for a re-orientation of policies relating to educational provision. A whole range of innovations are possible, offering opportunities for continuing education through the use of alternative structures, methodologies, resources and delivery systems (such as mass media) and ensuring flexibility and diversity to meet the varying needs and situations of different age, regional and socio-economic groups.

NOTES ON RESOURCES

VILLAGE INDUSTRIES

Five slide sets and a photo-set about village industries, with particular reference to a village in Uttar Pradesh State, India, have recently been published by CWDE. Free leaflet about them from Centre for World Development Education, 25 Witley Road, London SW1.

WATER

'Water can mean . . . life, health, food, fun, power, danger.' Six simple worksheets on these themes have been developed by Unicef Education Department, for 8-11 year-old pupils. They are attractively designed and written, and accompanied by extremely detailed and useful notes for teachers. Available from UNICEF Education Officer, 46-48 Osnaburgh Street, London NW1 3PU.

WORLD WILDLIFE

The Wildlife Youth Service of the World Wildlife Fund is arranging a major fundraising campaign in 1978 concerned with marine life. It is entitled **Marine Life Spell-In**, and is suitable mainly for pupils in the 7-11 age-range. Various leaflets about it are available free of charge from Cyril Littlewood, 98-106 Manor Road, Wallington, Surrey, SM6 0DN.

ARGENTINA

A valuable newsletter about the current political situation in Argentina is available free of charge (but donations welcome) from the Committee for Human Rights in Argentina, 1 Cambridge Terrace, London NW1.

Short Writing and Continuing Education

Antony Weaver

Since reading for the English tripos at Cambridge, at a time when I. A. Richards and F. R. Leavis held the stage, I have for ever faced a dilemma between the merits of books and the merits of journals and magazines. Perhaps readers of these pages suffer a twinge of guilt that they are holding **The New Era** in their hands rather than a great tome.

Richards taught how to read poetry and, through T. H. White, his former student and my teacher at school, to recognise stock responses and blind spots in one's own reactions, and hence to the beginnings of an insight into psychological motivation, structuring and gestaltism. A friend wrote recently 'Sorry this is such a long letter: I haven't time for a short one.' On another level there is indeed an elegance in the economy of a stanza in which every word is measured. Of the poems that Richards gave us for this exercise (published in *Practical Criticism*) some were banal, some fiery metaphysical, some distillations of the predicaments in which man finds himself: all were necessarily short.

The other protagonist, F. R. Leavis, railed against slipshod spurious half-baked journalism and the uncultured — multicoloured — stuff of Sunday papers and television. Curiously, as his recent obituaries made plain, Leavis went on to found and edit a famous and exceedingly influential journal, *Scrutiny*, in which he and his disciples refreshed the art of criticism and slew or built up the reputation of contemporary writers. Leavis enhanced the tradition of eighteenth century essayists, and could be regarded too as a polemical pamphleteer in the sense of Voltaire or Tom Paine.

A journal undoubtedly bears the stamp of its successive editors or of the movement which it serves. Its production is essentially a joint effort, usually resulting from more rigorous discussion, between groups of writers and those who call the theme, than is the



case between the author of a book and his publisher. The readers get into a habit of expectation and may come to rely on the rhythm of the journal's appearance as they do upon the next meal or the refreshment from their own night's sleep.

Of course there are bad journals just as there are bad books — boring, ill-informed, prejudiced, sensational or soporific. The marks of a good journal would seem to be that it appears regularly and that its contents are critical, reflective and well-written. There's nothing wrong in a short piece: brevity does not mean short-lived, ephemeral, frail or hasty.

* * *

So much for the worth of journals in general. If we agree that they perform a function distinct from books, what is the particular role of one such as **The New Era** in the realm of continuing education?

Firstly, we have to admit the usually poor style of writing in the hybrid field of education and its allied disciplines of psychology and sociology compared with that of a novelist, short story writer or historian. Bertrand Russell and William James ('Easy writing's damned hard reading' he said) must count among the few exceptions. But this is not to point to a defect in journals as such, only to the poor quality of much educational writing.

2. It is the responsibility of the editors to initiate and propound a critical educational philosophy, but they are fed by their contributors, some of whom unsolicited. Thus they provide a forum or sounding board, as well as having the means to encourage and make known new writers.

3. This constitutes a supplement by other means, and on a non-sectarian basis, to the exchanges that occur at conferences. Let us not forget that in the beginning the WEF was started by readers of **The New Era** banding together. Through the Fellowship many have testified that they have found reassurance and have been strengthened by meeting like minds who share common problems, albeit in a different setting.

4. The busy teacher or parent may not have time for long books but he or she has time for three or four thousand words which keep him up to date with practical developments, innovations in teaching method, or reports of research within his sphere of interest.

5. Similarly, the teacher or administrator may not have time to write the last word on a subject, but he has time to crystalise his experience and to let others know of his activities and predicaments.

6. This at once reveals the honorary nature of continuing education namely its characteristics of self-help and voluntary effort.

7. **The New Era** has no ideological axe to grind: it is subsidised by no governmental nor political master. Through its associate editors and the WEF Sections it is in an almost unique position to foster not merely international but cross cultural themes.

* * *

As an example of the use of a journal in continuing education we are happy to reproduce 'Learning to Care' by Norman Kirby, with permission from our friend Monroe Cohen editor of *Childhood Education*, with whom **The New Era** has reciprocal relations. The article first appeared in this journal of the Association for Childhood Education International, Washington, in November/December 1976, and was subsequently presented an American Award 'for contributing to human understanding through focus on the responsibility of education to foster diversity.'

Cohen met Kirby on a visit to Goldsmiths' College, London, where the latter has devoted 25 years service to teacher training, mainly at the stage of middle schools (8-13s). In the article Norman Kirby clearly shows his empathy with children, and it is significant that his concern that 'their differences should be valued and welcomed in order to avoid exaggerated roles and stereotyping' is of universal interest, that it has been taken up on the other side of the Atlantic, and is now reprinted here.

Learning to Care

Norman Kirby

Head of the Middle School (Junior) Education Department, Goldsmiths' College

Sally had but to appear on the playground to become immediately a target for teasing by any other children who happened to notice her. Not that they had a lack of things to do — they might be running, jumping, climbing, skipping, playing with a ball, hopping, swinging, balancing along the monkey-walk, dropping from heights or turning somersaults. When Sally appeared on the scene, however, such apparently absorbing activities would stop, to be replaced by a stereotyped pattern of behaviour directed by someone going towards her.

It was remarkable how different groups of children on different occasions found Sally good to tease. Once she arrived when John was being tied to the railings by a group of boys. She was instantly seized by them as the next and only other victim and the cause of John's immediate release.

She was a target for gangs of children in many a rough chasing game. On one autumn day she came into the school playground and was at once pelted with leaves and ultimately buried beneath the pile. If she was seen playing with a ball, boys would come and take it from her, yet other ball-playing children continued their games unmolested. One morning two boys ran past a teacher in a corridor in pursuit of Sally. When reprimanded for running in corridors, one of them said, by way of excuse, 'But she's such a good person to chase.'

Tom was another butt, a prey to teasing and childish jokes because of his large size, slowness of movement and good nature. He was aware of the amusement he caused and seemed to encourage ridicule by exaggerating his own reputation for guilelessness and simplicity. During the school camp when he was supposed to be on a strict diet, he would invariably help himself to an extra slice of bread and jam and then, as an antidote, would run around the field. On one occasion at breakfast, as he flashed past a group of boys for the second time, one of them called out,

"Why are you going round twice?" Tom panted in reply, 'Because I licked the jam spoon!'

These are only two mild examples of stereotyped behaviour on the part of a group towards an individual. It may not be thought that there is anything particularly alarming or harmful in such behaviour. But the element of sadness is present in the reactions of the two 'victims.' Children are separate, independent individuals; it is this uniqueness that a sensitive teacher strives to protect and develop. Children are also members of communities, and as social beings they react to social situations. Teachers are controllers if not creators of such situations.

Both Sally and Tom reacted to their situations in the spirit of 'If you can't beat them, join them.' Sally began to see herself as the great disrupter of other people's play, the tomboy who deliberately provoked boys to chase and 'rag' her. She started her life at the school by being good-humoured under provocation and quick to retaliate. This behaviour encouraged other children, who rose to the challenge. She enjoyed boisterous horseplay, the excitement of the chase and eventually being sat upon beneath a great pile of bodies. A later more disturbing development was her initiating the teasing and tormenting of younger children, snatching away their toys and interfering with their play.

Tom's being overweight became a group problem in that the group developed certain expectations in the light of Tom's size. Without being deliberately callous, for Tom was very well liked, the other boys responded in stereotyped fashion, laughing and teasing, using the usual unflattering nicknames ('Tub' being the one finally adopted as a permanent mode of address).

Tom was developing a whole set of personality characteristics oriented to the expectations and jibes, however affectionate, of his companions. In response to their predictable behaviour, he began to overreact, exaggerating the slow, ponderous movements of the heavyweight, speaking breathlessly and laughing at his own attempts to master certain physical skills. He could, of course, have overreacted in an opposite way by striving to become more agile and lightfooted than his slimmer and more athletic friends.

It is natural for children to react spontaneously to the differences in others, whether they be differences in physical contours or idiosyncracies of character; but unanimity of reaction and monotonous conformity of behaviour, when uninfluenced and unguided by rationality and compassion, can amount to unkindness, even to persecution and to suppression of undetected human potentialities. Who could have guessed that Sally, the teased and the teaser, both bullied and bully, was an accomplished dancer; that Tom, slow-moving and 'hopeless' at games, was brilliant at art?

Whose Norms?

A situation in which children are expected to conform to an accustomed social pattern highlights the non-conformity of those who are unable, for physical or intellectual reasons, or unwilling through emotional or temperamental reasons, to match the behaviour of others. Standards and norms are the enemies of ec-

centricities and differences. A recent research into the aims of primary education has shown that teachers divide themselves broadly into two opposing groups: those who consider the aim of education to be a preparation for life in a given society and those who place the emphasis on the value of independence and individuality. If social norms are to be the guide, whose norms are to be followed? Where children are encouraged in their individual differences and interests, unpredictable strengths are tapped and the teacher's life is full of surprises. Not enough is expected of children in terms of output or personal quality. Their potentialities are greater than those envisaged by the most demanding of teachers. A teacher's plan for a whole class may actually impose a restriction upon the aspirations and capabilities of certain children. A social climate in which differences are not only tolerated but welcomed is not one to encourage the growth of stereotypes.

Moving Beyond Labels

If human beings are prone from an early age to fall into the lazy habit of stereotyping their fellows, then the social climate needed to counteract this tendency has to be created. In an 'accepting' social climate, young children are quick to accept others along with their differences. The conventional labelling of individuals in the everyday world of adults is in marked contrast to the unconcern with which children at a present-day Play Centre for Juniors choose their various activities, some of the boys choosing to knit while girls do woodwork. Modern primary schools no longer segregate the sexes for craftwork and cooking on the basis of traditional male and female occupations. Boys enjoy domestic activities as well as carpentry, and girls have a similar breadth of choice.

A student travelling to college by train became interested in observing that many people read newspapers, magazines and novels but few read poetry. In her research she decided to seek the reason: could it be the fault of bad teaching? She set out to enquire in Infant, Junior and Secondary Schools. The Infants loved poetry, but by the time they reached the top of the Junior School boys considered poetry to be "sissy". This prejudice continued up into the Secondary School, except for one school where a keen and gifted young man taught poetry in between playing the guitar to his boys. The stereotype was replaced by another generalised attitude that happened to be favourable to the acceptance of poetry: the current popularity of the modern folksinger. The teaching, too, was good. Generalisations cannot be made from one small sample, but this is just one example of another area of stereotyping, amenable to remedy by a good teacher.

The stereotyped reaction is the herd reaction, the easy reaction. No sooner do we get rid of one set of stereotypes through education or social progress, than we become burdened with another. Stereotypes of a bygone age — 'foreigner' (not one of us), 'woman driver' (indicating male resentment), 'old fogey' (rejection of the elderly) — are superseded by modern stereotypes polarising mass attitudes toward educa-

tion or styles of dress or length of hair. Even psychology has added to the number of labels: 'schizoid,' 'paranoiac,' 'mother fixation' are used in a more academic attempt to explain human divergences by a kind of learned shorthand. Once the label has been attached on such respectable authority, no more trouble need be taken to understand the unique complex of motives and circumstances of the suffering individual.

'She says my things is lovely'

One of the very oldest stereotypes to become associated with aggressive and even cruel ways of behaving is the large collection of words clustered round the idea of backwardness. Nothing irritates some normally tolerant human beings more than evidence of lack of intelligence. One only has to think of the insults that angry car drivers hurl at each other to be aware of this area of touchiness: 'Idiot!' 'Fool!' 'Stupid nit!' 'Moron!' To be called tough or aggressive or even crafty are not the terms of disparagement they used to be, but nothing could be more damaging than to be called stupid or dim. It was the man who said 'Thou fool!' who was singled out in the Bible as the one most deserving of hell fire.

Slow learners are not slow to realise their difference from others. Singled out for special schooling, Linda belongs to a category vulnerable to all the hazards of stereotyping. At her first school, her slowness in the basic academic skills of reading and mathematics made her conspicuous amongst her more able contemporaries. Yet she is unquestionably an individual, unique personality with peculiar gifts and talents.

Linda, now grown-up, is alone and without parents in a world where even the kindest employers of unskilled labour tend to take advantage of her handicap; her vulnerability; her gullibility, trustfulness and gratitude. She nevertheless calls forth the best in some other people. A bus driver, seeing her run for his bus, stops fifty yards or more before the official bus stop so that she can get on. Some shopkeepers knowingly charge her less than the advertised price (while others cunningly charge her more). She therefore acts like a mirror, showing people for what they are.

Linda wants, above all, to be liked, to be appreciated and, for her contribution, whatever it may be, to be valued. She desires praise for her services far more than she desires gifts and services from others, except where these are clear expressions of love and liking for her. A remarkable example of this was the warmth of her emotion at receiving fifty pence from one acquaintance and the coolness of her acceptance of a pound note from another. She is warm and open, talkative and spontaneous to those who show her warmth but estranged, frozen, inhibited and tongue-tied with those who graciously tolerate and patronise her. A deep 'instinct' enables her to distinguish between the two. She spends a great deal of money on gifts and repeatedly wants the assurance that these have given pleasure. She likes to be thanked and longs to be noticed. On holiday she suggests outings and wants the credit for having suggested them. She constantly needs the expressed confirmation that her

services and achievements, however slight by normal standards, are recognized:

'You didn't know I could cook apples, did you? I kept it dark.'

'You didn't know I could iron sheets, did you?'

'I took you out, didn't I? Treated you to a drink!'

'Do you like your tea towel what I bought for you?'

'Miss G. will get my card this morning. She'll be pleased won't she?'

Linda is jealous of children who claim the little share of attention she so desperately craves. Blossoming emotionally and even speaking fluently when a kindly woman enquires with genuine interest about her activities of the day and past experiences, she is silent, moody and wretched — sitting apart and unparticipating when bright, intelligent children become the centre of attraction. Babies and animals she adores and never begrudges the attention given to them. She has to be restrained from buying the many kittens, puppies, hamsters, monkeys and budgies that take her fancy on her numerous visits to the pet shop. At the zoo she is full of 'Oohs!' and 'Ahs!' at the sight of baby animals. She has a simple compassion for all vulnerable creatures, the old, the very young, the handicapped, the dead. She never passes an old lady without wanting to help her, showing this by lightly taking her arm. From the top of a bus she sees an old man on the pavement walking slowly; and she utters a cry of pity, audible to everyone on the bus. She walks many miles to take flowers to blind Doris. She faithfully remembers her dead and is always ready with the reminder: 'We must buy some flowers and take them to Auntie's grave.' She never forgets a birthday and always sends a card, choosing the words with great care, and is disappointed when she doesn't get a thank-you letter in return. She is concerned and sensitive about her personal appearance:

'Do you like my hair short?'

'You wouldn't like me in trousers, would you?'

Linda defers to and refers to authority for support. Rational or critical enquiry does not enter into her attitude to those who possess the power:

'I change my undercloths every day. I'm spotless underneath. Mrs W. says I'm the cleanest girl she's got. She says my things is lovely. I'm very 'ticular about that sort of thing.'

'Sister says . . .'

Linda is anxious to learn, wants to read, and improves noticeably in this skill. She now writes letters without help, no longer needing to copy the prepared statements of somebody else, but she is worried about her spelling and for the gigantic labour of letter-writing must shut herself alone in her bedroom until the task has been completed.

The latest improvements in Linda's social and intellectual development have come about since she was removed from a large barrack-like hospital for the mentally handicapped and given employment among friendly people who value her for her specifically personal qualities.

Reshaping Group Attitudes

The most destructive aspect of the stereotype is the monotony of group response: the mental laziness, which characterises its all-too-ready use; the lack of feeling, which disregards concern for the individual; an uncritical allegiance to mass values and reactions, and the punitive element, whether conscious or not. Children who are victims of the repetitive behaviour of a group are more vulnerable than adults and need an adult's help.

Some children are strongly disliked by other children. It may be objected, 'The group reaction is a natural response to unlikeable characteristics and is surely the best way to educate the offender'; but such unattractive children are still in need of help from an experienced teacher.

No sociometric test was needed to highlight the unpopularity of Joan and of Stephen T. Children often expressed their dislike of Joan for her cocksure and patronising ways; and once, when she was reading aloud in an affected and overprecise manner, their irritation was openly expressed. Elizabeth said, 'Oh, Joan, don't put so much expression in'; and Olive added, 'Oh, Joan, don't read in such a show-off way.' Many children refused to sit next to her. Another incident in class illustrates the general attitude of the children toward the two Stephens. Carol was reading aloud to the class one of her own stories, the hero of which was a boy called John. Murmurs of astonishment and outbursts of laughter came from the class as they heard this John expressing his liking for a boy called Stephen. The reason for their behaviour was the unpopularity of Stephen T. in this class. During this interruption of the story Michael said, 'Don't be silly. Lots of boys are called Stephen.' Harry, in support of Michael, added, 'Yes, it might be someone like Stephen M.' This second Stephen was in another class, was very popular and exceptionally good at games. Stephen T. sat quietly listening and making a painful effort to smile.

Education of the group toward humane and considerate behaviour is as much a responsibility of the teacher as is the education of the individual. Reshaping of group attitudes can be achieved by a sympathetic teacher who has the interests of both the individual and the school community at heart. In the case of Joan and Stephen T., group work in the form of shared tasks and dramatizations, in which they and others were placed in positions of mutual service and cooperation, were found to improve relationships. Small-group loyalties were created within the context of an interesting, absorbing task — the making of a farm book, after visits to a farm; and mass feeling was thereby broken down. The first steps in this process were difficult, as no child wanted to be in a group with either Joan or Stephen. For Joan, the position did improve when others came to recognise her usefulness as a writer, producer and stage manager of plays in which other children were chosen for exciting and adventurous parts. The situation became even better when she agreed to give up the star role of princess

to another child and accept a walking-on part as a servant.

When Stephen joined the Scouts and went to camp, he became much in demand as a champion cook, showing different character traits and abilities that had previously been unsuspected at school — a forcible argument for including cooking for boys as well as girls in a rich and varied school curriculum. Children need to be put into groups small enough to be able to talk to each other, listen to each other, and understand each other. Situations must be created in which people can work together and share their problems and achievements. The adult should help the group to appreciate the value of diversity and eccentricity and should arrange situations in which individual contributions by their very unpredictability are accepted and enjoyed as delightful surprises. The likely victims of teasing or unpopularity or neglect can then be seen as contributors in a variety of serious or lighthearted situations. This leader would be so keen to understand the emerging personalities in the group that his main interest would be in terms of 'What do you think?' 'What is going on in your heads?' 'How do you feel about this task or this experience?' rather than 'Guess what is in my head and give me the right answer.'

Good modern primary schools, in creating loving, welcoming and accepting communities, are thereby recreating individuals. The diversity of gifts is positively encouraged, so that no eccentricity or idiosyncrasy causes the raised eyebrow of the teacher or the jibes and teasing of the other children. The curriculum caters to a wide variety of interests and allows a multitude of choices and modes of expression. In a rapidly changing, liberated society, it should not appear extraordinary for a Secondary School girl to be attracted to bricklaying and a boy to be interested in embroidery; and no individuals should be allowed to suffer embarrassment because of unusual choices. The lives of many famous poets, musicians, dancers, painters and saints are so often overshadowed by the struggles outstanding geniuses have had against the mockery of their contemporaries and the disapproval, alas, of their teachers.

Questions That Inspire

Education can be stereotyped according to sex, and it can also be stereotyped according to age. When education is geared to experience, however, both age and sex become irrelevant. The excited observations and comments of a nine-year-old boy on his first flight with his parents to America via the North Pole were as acceptable as those of the adults. Within a shared experience, it becomes difficult to say at a given moment who is the teacher and who the taught. A good school fosters this kind of verbal exchange from a wealth of firsthand experiences. Each person can extract from them and bring to them his or her own unique offerings. In so doing they discover themselves as well as each other. The effects of experience are unpredictable — a source of endless surprises and therefore a delight for the teacher whose enthusiasm is not dampened by knowing everything in

advance. Questions become real when the answers are genuinely sought.

Many questions are asked in school by teachers who already know the answers. How insulting most adults would find such questions to be if asked within the context of a normal social gathering of adults! Questions in class do not have to be inquisitorial. They can be inspirational. Solutions to genuine problems may take a variety of forms:

'We could cook a meal with these Elizabethan ingredients to find out what their food tasted like.'

'We could make up a play and bring in this old-fashioned song . . . and try out the dance movements. . . . Yes and we could dress up . . . where's that book on fashion? . . . Perhaps we could invite our parents . . .'

'I'd rather make one of those concertina folders about it . . .'

'I want to paint a picture or do a frieze . . .'

'Three of us would like to make a model . . .'

A World Where Differences Are Valued

Experience is individual, but it can also be shared. What could be more educative and healing than the sharing of ideas between a wise, understanding, questing adult and a curious, enquiring child?

Good schools have a flexible concept of educability across age, sex and ability groups. Good teachers show their respect for persons by acceptance of diversity of interest and output. Renouncing all rigidity in their expectations, they set no limits to the potentialities of the learner. Each child is encouraged to aim for the best of which he or she is capable within

a rich variety of human activities. A key concept in the school's philosophy would be responsibility: the teacher responsible for his or her children, including their behaviour toward each other, and for the warmth of the classroom climate; the children responsible for their own learning and for sharing the efforts and fruits of cooperation with others in work and in discussion. There would be an avoidance of authoritarianism on the one hand and of sentimentality on the other.

Children are happy in a school where they are working and achieving and responsible. Slow learners too want their achievements to be recognised. Why else should Linda be at such pains to exhibit her poor little achievements, her stewed apples, her polishing and dusting, her bed-making, the stain so painstakingly removed from the bath, her endless birthday cards and presents?

It is good for teachers to have understanding of the general picture of child development, to be able to make appropriate choices of books for children and to have a well-documented concept of 'normality'. It is equally good to carry this general knowledge loosely; to be prepared for the unexpected, for the great potential of some children, given certain conditions of acceptance, stimulus and encouragement; to be prepared for the unusual interests, the wayward and whimsical use of words, the eccentric and untypical child. When education is for the whole kaleidoscope of human activities, for tolerance of the unforeseen and for acclimatisation to uncertainty in a world of fast-changing roles and mixed roles, stereotypes might gain little foothold. In a world where differences are valued, no one should be tormented for being different.

DISRUPTIVE BEHAVIOUR IN A SECONDARY SCHOOL

by

Jean Lawrence, David Steed (Goldsmiths)

Pamela Young (London Institute of Education)

Goldsmiths' Educational Studies Monograph No. 1

Series Editor — Leslie Smith

AVAILABLE NOW FROM
PUBLICATIONS SERVICE, GOLDSMITHS' COLLEGE,
NEW CROSS, SE14 6NW — PRICE £1.00

In this case study of disruptive behaviour in an urban boys' high school, the researchers examine incidents of disruption, serious and very serious, occurring over two one-week periods. They examine the pattern of incidents, when they occur, with which teachers, what happens, and what the teachers do. They write a paper for the school, with suggestions as to how this moderately difficult school can help itself. The monograph contains accounts of incidents, in the teachers' own words, as well as studies of teacher stress, and resource allocation, etc. The research is multi-disciplinary, in the Goldsmiths' tradition.

A Curriculum for Parents?

Nicholas Gillett, School of Education, University of Bristol

There is hard research evidence showing that a main factor in pupil attainment at school is the encouragement and interest of their parents supporting them. In this country Douglas(1) was the first to produce research results of this kind; he has been confirmed in his findings by others mentioned in Miller(2) so that the new questions which arise are: what sort of encouragement and interest is desirable, how can it be fostered, are the ways of doing well, which can be measured, a good indicator for other ways of doing well, and in particular what is the school's new role which may be deduced. It may be that parents' interest can be too intense for an only child and that parents should be encouraged to talk and do more not just with their own children but with their children's friends, their neighbours and classmates.

Should the school regard itself as being only partly an institution for educating children but almost equally an institution for educating adults? It is not unusual to describe Nursery Schools in these terms; it is possible to urge developing countries to divide their budget for education equally between adults and children; and it is reported from Japan that a good way of teaching musical instruments is to teach mother and child simultaneously.

Very little is known in detail about how best to enlist parents' interest. Dr Douglas wrote of primary children and there may well be a ridge somewhere in adolescence after which the interest of parents can be counter-productive. When Dr Douglas isolated children who through illness had been thrown for a period on their parents' resources, they not only caught up with their classmates on returning to school but went slightly ahead of them. The difference between older and younger children in this respect was not reported, but in the absence of any contrary evidence it is safest for a school to assume that it is worth taking its contacts with parents much more seriously than has been customary in the past.

This does not mean more reports and more homework but a rethinking of all the varied activities which have gone on in one school or another most likely but not necessarily under the aegis of PTAs. It is time in fact that thought was given to the curricula for PTAs in different kinds of school, primary and secondary, rural and urban, thriving and disheartened. In the same way, as many schools have muddled along in the past without formulating distant aims, closer objectives or curricula for the children and only gained a clarity of purpose when tackling the questions of matter and method, so the PTAs are muddling along without realising the opportunities which are being lost. All the major waste in education is due not to losing pencils and books but to spending precious time and

energy on the wrong activities. There is very little thought about what PTAs should produce in terms of changed action or behaviour, to use the words of the curriculum specialists, and so it is little wonder that they seem to have no sense of priorities when it comes to drawing up a programme. The methods of the curriculum specialists are ideally suited to help such a situation. Articles such as those by King(3), McGeeney(4) and Cardenas(5) are helpful but do not relate the activities they recommend to the theories of the curriculum specialists.

Unfortunately the idea of a curriculum for parents would lead to suspicions that the parents are going to be treated like infants by old-fashioned teachers who talk down to children all day and find themselves incapable of altering their tone of voice when faced with parents in the evening. In fact nothing could be more misleading, since the in-service training in PTAs for teachers and parents is a joint endeavour in which the teachers stand to gain more than the parents. A curriculum is the pattern which ensures that precious time is not wasted. Moreover the informal in-service training which can be gained in PTAs has the great merit that it brings teachers into contact with people outside the profession, unlike the usual courses for teachers.

A more serious objection is that teachers have a full day's work already without adding even more. This must be met, as it is in many Community Schools, by appointing additional staff so that every teacher who wishes to take an active part can have time off during the day to compensate for work undertaken during the evening. A school which was given no additional staff might, nevertheless, decide that larger classes coupled with a free afternoon and the equivalent time and energy spent in PTA work might be the best for them. Sometimes Local Education Authorities provide 'Supply Teachers' when staff are absent for in-service training, sometimes fully qualified teachers who are parents at the school volunteer to give their help.

It is not at present possible, according to the law, for the school to send the children home earlier each day in order to spend more working time with parents. Similarly teachers might make a new salary agreement to cover a certain amount of time for home/school activities. If serious measures of this sort were taken the co-operation of parents and teachers would undoubtedly be deemed worthy of a curriculum, rather than a chance range of haphazard activities.

The first step in any case is to establish objectives. This is not an easy task since it is much easier to talk about directions after taking bearings than to decide upon anything so final as an objective. Much has been made of the vagueness of educational aims, but ob-

jectives also have their many limitations. They can seldom be comprehensive in anything as wide as human behaviour, and what has attracted insufficient notice is that many of them would be absurd if carried to extremes.

One of the first objectives of the curriculum would be to attract a high percentage of the parents to come to the school both in the evenings and during the day-time for Open Days, Sports Days and as teachers' aides. This may involve finding people to 'sit-in' and look after the children while the parents are away. In any case there will be some who fail to get to the school, some for good reasons, some for bad, and they select themselves in this way for any home-visiting which may be undertaken.

The forms in which these occasions are set reveal that teachers differ considerably in what they have in mind about home/school contacts. Indeed the general objective for more visits to school might be divided up, for the sake of clarity, into those which provide mainly for parents to know more about what their children are doing, such as the reports given orally as well as written; secondly, those which provide the teacher with more insight into the way his children live at home; and thirdly, those which are less concerned with the children as individuals than with the school as a whole. Many complaints are made about parents who do not come, although their children are doing badly and they seem to need help. Often the programme of activities seems designed to frighten away such parents by a narrowly academic set of values for the school.

In this connection the number of parents who turn up at exhibitions of things made or done at home deserves special mention. The children's spare time is the joint concern of parents and teachers. If the teaching in the school is effective, it is bound to flow over into spare time during evenings, weekends and holidays in the form of all kinds of hobbies, experiments and visits undertaken not as formal homework but voluntarily. Many homes need to be better suited to what are sometimes untidy or space-consuming activities and parents should be ready to give whatever help is needed. It is better to be hobby-proud than house-proud.

The exhibitions which result are an incentive to the children; as they look at each other's work they learn where to go for help. They also provide the parents with new ideas about what can be done and serve as an eye-opener to the teachers about the pupils they thought they knew.

If the PTA wishes to embark on Adult Education classes in Child Development or School and Community, success may be achieved by linking these with some of the exhibits. In any case such courses need to be made highly practical, for example by linking stages in child development to toys popular at a given age.

Up to this point the objectives mentioned in the Plowden Report have been discussed, namely visits to schools and opportunities for parents to speak to the teacher mainly concerned with their children's education. There are some further objectives which have

come to have a greater importance in the past decade. If the children take home a questionnaire about priorities in the development of the local community, the increase in the number of parents able and willing to return it is an indicator of success. The same would be true of a questionnaire dealing with adapting houses to suit growing children.

Finally might be added the number of school pupils using the public library, and the number of the public attending a biennial exhibition of local adult clubs and societies in the school's buildings.

All these figures would not tell how effective the PTA was in ensuring that teachers had the backing of local resources in the form of farms and factories to visit, travellers to interview and sources of scrap materials, nor would they reveal how much new teachers and new parents were welcomed; but they would be a useful start and the programme which follows is closely based on them. It indicates activities which are suited to a secondary school; many of these schools are so large that they do not suit the kind of meetings commonly held by PTAs in primary schools. It may be that parents are divided up among their children's 'house-groups', one house meeting at a time, but for common interests it is easier to meet in year-groups and so the activities are arranged accordingly.

In listing objectives it is apparent that measures of success are described so that schools can find out whether suitable methods are being used, and teachers have a better chance of gaining the job-satisfaction which comes readily to those responsible for a single class in primary schools and to those preparing children for public examinations in secondary schools, but which often eludes the rest.

Year I

AUTUMN

1. Assuming that parents have already been able to visit the school in the previous term, the first meeting centres round homework and other matters of school organisation, but also includes a demonstration by older children of their work (acting, dancing or playing music).

2. Late in the term an exhibition of toys and/or books suitable for Christmas presents accompanied by relevant talks or films. A Brains Trust about the value of different toys might be tried.

SPRING

1. A school subject of special interest. Either it is to be taught in a new way or it is unfamiliar to parents or the school excels in it or it can easily be made interesting by demonstrations.

2. What it is like to be twelve. Based on written extracts from essays, contributions from parents discussing specific questions in groups of about six and some indication, perhaps using tapes, of what they like and what they understand in contrast with eighteen year olds.

SUMMER

1. Fund raising by sponsored activities, sales for clearly defined needs of the school which are appreciated by the parents.
2. Oral and written reports. This implies an opportunity to talk with one or more of the teachers primarily concerned. Appointments for reporting obviate queues.

Year II

AUTUMN

1. An exhibition of things done or made at home. Notice of this needs to be given and children can put down their names for something during the preceding year.
2. The exhibition of toys or books can be expanded to include a shelf of books read by the children during the year, book reviews written by children such as may be found in some libraries, and home-made toys such as puppets.

SPRING

1. This Town of Ours. The parents can be an enormous help in making an urban equivalent of the Nature Trail so that the children at home and at school begin to understand the neighbourhood and the way the work of different people and institutions fits together. At the same time they begin to see their neighbourhood with all its virtues as well as its need through other people's eyes. This session must be timed to fit with the Social Studies syllabus.
2. The thirteen year old and his social needs. The onset of adolescence often upsets parent-child relationships and discussions in small groups on actual case studies from elsewhere can point to the main issues.

SUMMER

At this time, if not earlier, some special activity arising from a special need of the school or the community. For example new housing estates require extra opportunities for people to become acquainted.

In the third and fourth years, in addition to following up the work on school subjects, adolescence, and leisure, some time must be given to the careers and school courses which can be chosen later. Here again circumstances differ widely between one town and another, and even the most ambitious parents are often taken aback to find that the outcome of success at school is that their sons and daughters live further away when they start work than they would if they had failed examinations. One outcome of the discussions in PTAs has been a wider recognition of the value to young mothers of having grandparents and friends within reach. A curriculum is worth setting out but it has to be understood that it must be adaptable. In particular the methods of learning implied by the curriculum must be varied according to circumstances. They must be much more informal where Adult Education is regarded with suspicion; and there are very few schools where a set of talks attracts more than a tenth of the parents. Once the parents find that the school welcomes them and

invites their help so that school and home help each other they take a positive attitude and are ready for the co-operation which is the objective of the work. Unfortunately there is very little available evidence about the variations in parental opinion as between schools and the different parts of schools. Head teachers are inclined to be afraid that any research work of this sort may upset a few of the parents. It would be useful to know how widely the fallacy is held that there can be no other purpose for parents visiting schools than the education of their own children, with no concern for the school or other children. This view is often held by teachers and they have still to accept contact with parents as part of their in-service training.

In short there is a lack of hard evidence for establishing the curriculum which seems to be needed. In addition the leadership has to be found to counter the forces favouring the existing state of affairs. Parents hesitate to add to their big job and teachers, when other people get overtime pay, hesitate to take a professional view of their work. It has been well said that the two classes in society are the working class and those with no responsibility for children. On the whole the stimulus may yet come from economic factors. Already in France every child's dossier includes information about leisure activities as a foundation for careers guidance. It would not be a very big step in a period of increasing unemployment to foster leisure activities through PTAs so as to give early talent encouragement and thus to provide employers with a wider field of choice. The most creative people are at the height of their powers in their twenties and thirties and need early recognition. Job satisfaction in industry begins with getting young people into jobs which suit them best.

There is no doubt that economic influences of this sort are usually regarded with suspicion by the teaching profession; although operating through politicians and administrators they are too powerful to oppose if precedents form a good guide. They define the outline of the possibilities but not the details.

Universities exercise an enormous influence over the secondary schools, through examinations, selection and training of staff, to such an extent that their profession of non-responsibility sounds hollow. The situation at present is that there is no prospect of agreement among universities or even departments within a single university about what may be regarded as adequate schooling. Consequently examination results alone are usually considered. A school might have no extra-curricula activities at all, let alone a PTA, and still be able to send its young people on to university. The usual complaints made by university tutors about their students are that they are narrow in their interests, unfitted for anything except getting the best GCE Advanced level passes, with bad work habits unsuited to university conditions and with no clear sense of purpose. Very often a distinction is drawn between first generation university students and others but no one points out that this means that the PTA failed at the top end of the school. Here again there is work to be done to find out what a sample of university depart-

ments accepts as a statement to secondary schools. No evidence is available at present.

Enough has been said to show how the curriculum developer, having decided on his objectives, examines the forces at work favouring or putting a brake on the changes which will be necessary. The group of staff seeking the innovation have to manage the situation they have diagnosed, recognising that the staff is unlikely to be united on such an issue, disarming objectors and strengthening the hands of those who wish to make a start. By avoiding confrontations with those who doubt the validity of serious parent participation, by making the most of the appreciative parents, the teachers become managers of learning situations for PTAs as they do in school. In industry and in primary schools it is accepted that 'the situation gives the orders' making it less necessary for anyone to feel themselves to be ordered about and humiliated. A PTA has difficulty in recognising the situation because familiarity is the main cause of blindness. Adolescents, it is accepted, are apt to be at a loose end on Sunday afternoons when juvenile delinquency reaches a peak and also in the second half of holidays, yet no PTA has been known to hold a discussion on the subject of Sunday afternoons. It is moreover a matter on which the parents may know as much as the teachers so there is less temptation to prolong the school atmosphere into the evening since there is no one who can speak with authority.

Much of the evaluation of the curriculum will be carried out by a simple counting of heads at the different kinds of gathering. There can be no attempt to measure the response to a serious seminar on child development against numbers turning up at a social. Nor is it easy to compare school with school since the size of the school itself is one of the factors influencing attendance. More attend in smaller schools, it has been shown, because they have less distance to travel and they are less confused about who the teachers are.

Finally it should be noted that the definition of a curriculum carries with it the danger that change ceases and it is better to follow the evaluation with an immediate change as a regular practice than it is to risk losing sight of the principles on which the curriculum is based. This is not change for the sake of change but to keep everyone flexible in their thinking.

Conditions are developing all the time and it is likely that some of them have implications for the parents' activities with the teacher. Although there are now a number of books available, none of them attempts to deal with the numerous different curricula required. Head teachers are not yet satisfied that asking for co-operation from parents may not involve interference, just as parents are at times afraid of interference in their homes. These indicate some of the many openings for further work to be done. For the most part they are old bogeys; King in his sample of secondary schools found that virtually all held meetings for new parents, fund-raising went on in 60%, meetings about the children's work in 82% and about

careers 68%. In short, work with parents is already a significant part of the total work of the school.

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THE NEXT ISSUE OF IDEAS . . .

Ideas No. 39 will appear in the next issue of **The New Era (No. 6)** which will be published in November, 1978; and will join **The World Studies Bulletin** in presenting studies based on the theme **IN-SERVICE EDUCATION**.

Thus, the theme of the current issue of the journal — **CONTINUING EDUCATION** will be explored still further, albeit with a slightly narrower focus. **The World Studies Bulletin** edited by Robin Richardson will present articles which take an international perspective, and **Ideas**, edited by Leslie A. Smith, will tackle the theme from a British perspective with contributions from the following:

- * **A. V. Kelly**, Dean of the School of Education, University of London Goldsmiths' College, writes on 'Towards a fully graduate teaching profession'.
- * **Professor Maurice Craft**, Goldsmiths' Professor of Education, University of London Goldsmiths' College, discusses the topic 'Advanced Education Courses and their role in Continuing and In-Service Education'.
- * **Peter Baynes**, Dean of the School of Adult and Social Studies, University of London Goldsmiths' Colleges, takes a critical and helpful look at the various terms used in the title of his contribution, 'Adult Education: its role in Continuing and In-Service Education'.
- * **J. Vincent Chapman**, Secretary of The College of Preceptors, provides a fascinating view of the contributions made by this famous institution (incorporated by Royal Charter in 1849) in his contribution entitled 'Teach and Learn: The Role of The College of Preceptors in Continuing Education'.
- * **David Grugeon**, Deputy Director of Studies, Regional Tutorial Service, The Open University, will write on 'The role of The Open University in Continuing and In-Service Education'.

Pre-Service and In-Service Education of Teachers: a review of some reform plans in Japan

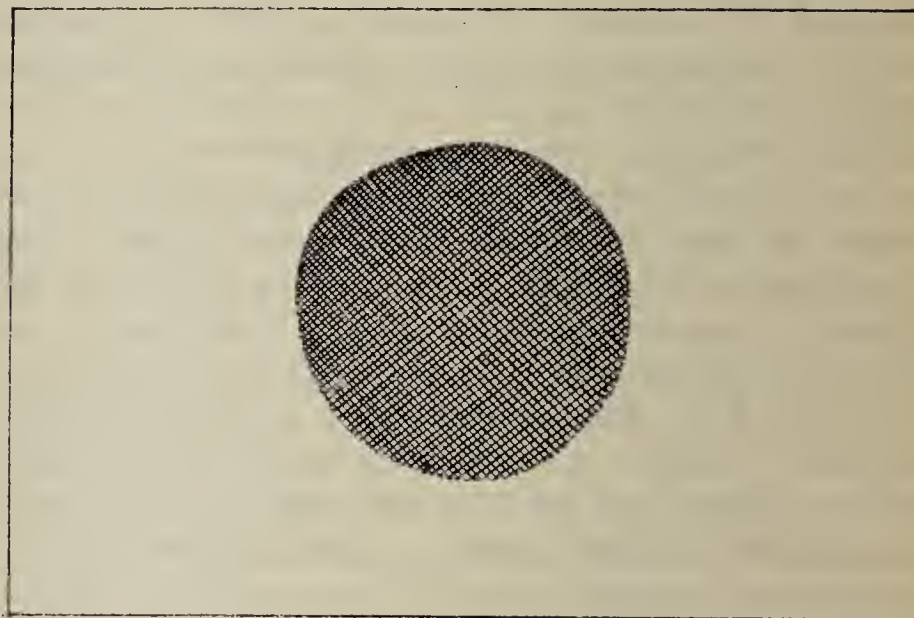
Dr Masami Maki

'Continuing and In-service Education: Current and Projected developments in Japan', the theme of this article, includes education in schools, continuing education, in-service education in various areas, and so on. 'Teacher Education' is an aspect of 'continuing and in-service education' presenting Japanese education with a very important problem. Dr Masami Maki, a member of the National Institute for Educational Research and of the guiding committee of the WEF, Japan Section, has long studied these themes. —Professor Tomoichi Iwata.

Reform of the existing teacher education system

The Central Education Council, in pursuit of 'a third educational reform', published in 1971 a report on the reform of the present teacher education system. According to the Report, a fundamental task for both primary and secondary education is to reconsider the significance of teaching so that teachers can take a professional pride in their work. Some drastic reforms recommended, aiming to establish a new teacher education system and raise the social status of teachers, include (1) a one-year probationary training period under the appointing authority for those who have obtained a teacher certificate before they are employed as qualified teachers; (2) teacher certificate examinations should be more flexible in order to attract more men of talent; (3) experienced teachers should be given 'special status and payment'; and (4) newly designed independent graduate schools should be established with a view to educating teachers in service.

In July 1972 the Teacher Education Council published a reform plan the preface of which declared that 'teaching is one of the highest-level professions' demanding 'educational responsibility and love, general culture, academic excellence, study of both the philosophy and methods of education, and a profound understanding of the human life process.'



The important items in the reform plan are as follows: (1) primary school teachers should be educated in Colleges and Faculties for teachers where much more emphasis should be placed upon the intensive professional examination of teachers as such, and secondary school teachers should be educated in Colleges and Universities with approved courses for teachers; and (2) like teacher graduates from junior colleges, they should be given teacher certificates; (3) the period of teaching practice for primary school teachers should be eight weeks and that for secondary school teachers six weeks instead of four weeks and two weeks, respectively, as now; (4) teacher certificates should be graded in three classes according to the candidate's academic career: the lower class for junior college graduates, the middle class for university graduates and the upper class for the graduates of master's courses; and (5) a special one-year course should be introduced for university graduates who do not have teacher certificates, and a new two-year graduate school should be established for in-service teacher-training.

Controversial Issues

These reform plans have given rise to a con-

troversty in Japanese educational circles. It is argued, for example, that the Colleges and Faculties for training teachers will encourage exclusiveness such as the normal school system had before the War; that the proposed reform of teacher certificates by examination contradicts professionalism of teaching; that longer periods of teaching practice are virtually impossible in the present situation since many schools are reluctant to accept student teachers for fear of disrupting the effective operation of the school; and that the improvement of existing teachers colleges must precede the realisation of the 'new plan'.

Objections to the proposed reform of the teachers certificate by examination may be justified by two examples which have been put into practice: (1) the special certificate by examination issued by the Ministry of Education to senior high school teachers in charge of Judo (Japanese wrestling) or of Kendo (Japanese fencing) or of accounting; and (2) the primary school teacher certificate by examination (for which even high school graduates are eligible to sit) conducted in some national universities and colleges authorised by the Ministry. The number of successful candidates in both these examinations has been too small for institutional effectiveness or to help the supply of teachers.

Teaching practice is an important bridge between pre-service and in-service education. The items which should be discussed are: (1) improvement in the timing of teaching practice; (2) reinforcement of the student's orientation program by the university and college; (3) increasing the number of co-operating schools and improving their attitude towards teaching practice; (4) enriching the content and methods of teaching practice; and (5) prolonging the practice period. It is not easy to solve these problems today, and the difficulties will be increased in the future when 'five-day a week' schooling comes into effect.

Teacher Certificate and Teacher Recruitment

According to the statistics as of June 1973, the number of universities and colleges with approved courses for teacher education was

353 (or 86.1%), and that of junior colleges was 439 (or 86.6%). The number of certificate holders was 124,000 and 33,000 of them were actually engaged in teaching the following year, occupying only 7.6% of the total graduate force (438,000). In the near future, as the number of graduates increases, certificate holders will increase accordingly, and will amount to 300,000 or 400,000. This will inevitably upset the balance of supply and demand of teachers and the opportunity for recruitment will decrease year by year. Although there are many students who obtain a certificate purely for the sake of a certificate without any definite intention of teaching, this will present serious problems.

A student must have a teacher certificate to be employed as a qualified teacher. But in addition he must pass the teacher proficiency test, or recruitment examination, administered by the appointing authority of the Prefectural Board of Education where he wants to teach. As this is highly competitive, the number of successful candidates in this examination is generally very small. In the present 'mass production' system of teacher recruitment almost every student can easily obtain a teacher's certificate if he or she gets the required credits in universities or colleges. We call this the 'open system' in contrast to the 'closed system' characteristic of pre-war days. The new concept of an independent graduate school of teacher education developed by the Council may be said to be planned in order to reorganise the 'mass production' system.

The new concept of Graduate School of Teacher Education

The investigation committee into the problem of the Graduate School of Teacher Education (GSTE) handed in a report to the Secretary of the Ministry of Education in May 1974, proposing (following the rationale developed by the Teacher Education Council) that 'a new education research institution on the level of university and graduate school' should be established as one of the measures to cultivate men of talent for education. The aim of the 'new education research institution' (or GSTE) is to elevate the quality of primary and secondary school teachers

through the exploration of practical sciences concerning primary and secondary education. It is to have two courses, namely a 'primary education course' enrolling 200 students and a 'school education research course' enrolling 400.

The Primary Education Course (corresponding to the undergraduate course of the existing universities and colleges) aims to prepare for primary school teaching by adopting some new methods. Specialised subjects for the teaching profession include the nature and aims of education; mental and physical development of pupils, curriculum development, teaching method, pupil guidance and counselling, and educational administration and management. Other notable innovations are the 'vertical' system of practical teaching (beginning in the first year of schooling), the introduction of 'simulation' practice using educational technology, and the efficient adoption of seminar courses or seminar camps.

The School Education Research Course corresponds to the master's course of the existing universities and colleges. It aims to educate experienced teachers giving them an opportunity to improve their teaching competence and efficiency. Its curriculum consists of basic subjects, special studies, various kinds of (both academic and practical) electives, assigned work, and so on. There will also be various centres attached to this course, such as the educational technology center, the information and resources center, health administration center, as well as improved and advanced facilities and equipment in attached co-operating schools.

The GSTE will be an independent, separate school — a model for initiative and self-renewal of teaching and research activities on the part of the teachers' colleges, setting a standard for their improvement.

Emerging criticism

The reform plan, however, has invited unfavourable criticisms from universities and colleges. According to the report 'Some Problems on the Graduate Course in the Existing Teachers Colleges' published by the National Association of National Universities and Colleges in November 1974, (1) GSTE will be

under the direct control of Central Government; (2) it will be liable to degenerate into a sort of teacher 'training' institution because of its non-academic, practical nature; (3) it will inevitably create a rift between itself and the existing universities and colleges, etc. Therefore, the important thing is not the realisation of 'the new plan', but the improvement of the existing universities and colleges, not by Government intervention, but by the universities' own initiative; Satoru Umene, president of Wako University, says: 'It would be better . . . to establish one-year graduate courses in any teachers colleges which have not yet had graduate courses. And the present 'subject' system or 'course' unit must be replaced by a 'chair' system with a view to increasing the number of professors and increasing the budget for research activities'.

On the other hand, the impracticality of teacher education should be criticised. In fact, only a few universities and colleges have made efforts to improve the existing teaching situation. Considering this deplorable tendency, the new graduate school plan designed by Myagi University of Education is noteworthy for its sincerity and concreteness, though it has its own faults. Takeji Hayashi, president of the University, expresses his 'fundamental view' that 'just as education for medical doctors in the department of medicine cannot dispense with the existence of attached hospitals, so teacher education needs attached schools. Nowadays, however, there are no such attached schools in Japan, and the university authorities should be responsible for this state of affairs.' He stresses the lack of a clinical approach in the field of education as a most serious shortcoming.

Apart from administrative and managerial considerations, 'the new plan' is hard to put into practice under the legal framework of the present education system. Important questions are: (1) can we regard pupils of attached schools in the same light as patients of attached hospitals? and (2) do we have a sufficient number of professors or teacher educators with excellent academic attainments and proficiency as teachers at the same time? What ever the problems, as a temporary measure, I would like to suggest the introduction of a clinical professorship

into GSTE. We believe that there are quite a few expert teachers who, if they don't necessarily have enough academic attainment, may be called 'practical researchers in education', and that the institution of such a clinical professorship will contribute to the integration of research and practice.

Integration of Pre- and In-service Education

Recent criticism of teachers and their teaching technique is not important; but, by simply finding fault with teachers, critics are liable to forget the importance of their professional growth after qualifying. Needless to say, a teacher certificate (after four year's training) merely guarantees the minimum acceptable as a qualified teacher, after which we would expect development and improvement. With a new consistent program for the teaching profession as a whole, we could redistribute pre-service and in-service education beneficially.

The present system of teacher education is deficient both in theory and practice, because a conventional cramming approach is still influential during preparation in university and college, as if the emergent teacher

must be a perfect finished product. Hence the deep gulf observable between pre-service and in-service education.

On the other hand, there has been a growing tendency to improve in-service education of teachers, largely based on an underlying assumption of the inadequacy of teacher preparation in university and college. Each prefecture and most cities have so-called teacher centres where teachers can go for lectures, information and materials, or join discussion, workshops, or seminars. Generally speaking, these teacher development programs last for two or three days 'day release' during school hours. Residential courses are not so frequent. Teachers have an urgent need for relevant programs, designed in such a way that professional growth becomes the criteria of all training experience both in pre-service and in-service education for teachers. The idea involved in GSTE is expected to be one of the guidelines towards the integration of pre- and in-service education.

My thanks to Rex Andrews, a member of the Editorial Board of Ideas, for his help with the presentation of this article. (Ed.)

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PUBLICATIONS SERVICE

The College's Publications Service was created in 1966 in response to an ever-growing demand for works emanating from the Curriculum Laboratory. Central to this enterprise was the curriculum journal IDEAS, the first issue of which appeared in February 1967.

In order to emphasise the notion of 'service' the policy of the College was to maintain in print the increasing number of publications it produced; and the Publications Service is still able to draw from its stock of books an almost complete range of the reports, magazines and journals it has published over the years. In addition, because of the demand for bound volumes of the various series of IDEAS, Library Editions have been published as attractive books; and the complete set of the five series of this curriculum journal presents in six volumes and some 1½ million words a most revealing account of educational development during the past decade.

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Chemistry is Modern Mathematics: an in-service course to convince chemistry teachers

Angela Stumbles and Dick Henson, Senior Lecturers in Chemistry, School of Science & Mathematics, Goldsmiths' College

The Problem Posed

Science consists of the collection of data as well as the formation of theories; so also does good science teaching. The connection between the isolated datum and the unifying concept is always a mathematical one though not necessarily arithmetical. To illustrate this, consider the mathematical concept of ordering. A property is chosen such as size, and items are placed in order; for example, John is taller than David who is taller than Andrew. This carries with it many other ideas such as John must also be taller than Andrew and the inverse, David is shorter than John, etc. This idea is frequently used in elementary chemistry; for example, in the Nuffield GCE O-level chemistry course the problem is posed — which is more reactive toward oxygen, aluminium or iron? Other metals are tested, consequently building up an ordering or reactivity series.

In the past, chemistry teachers may not have considered such processes as essentially mathematical because they have not been emphasised in school mathematics curricula. Now there has been a fundamental change of attitude by mathematicians toward the teaching of their subject: a subject which had been relegated to being a tool for others to use, but which now is studied for its own sake. This has led to a more fundamental approach to mathematics and the introduction of several topics not previously studied. Although these 'new' topics were introduced simply for their mathematical interest, we believe some of them will prove to be more useful to the chemist than the more traditional mathematical topics. Euclidean geometry, for example, has been almost completely dropped from the syllabus, and symmetry has been introduced. Whereas geometry was of little use to the chemist, symmetry can be of tremendous use.

In recent years there has been an outcry by science teachers against the 'modern' mathematics introduced into schools. We believe this is often due to the frustration felt because children can no longer be relied on to understand the teacher's method of working. At one level this appears as an inability to do calculations, either because the pupil has not yet been introduced to a particular type of calculation or because the chemist is unable to pose the problem in a way that the pupil can understand. Most chemistry teachers desire their pupils to be able to do simple calculations, for example, in connection with moles, percentage composition, volumes and pressures of

gases. We are not advocating the abolition of such calculations, but we would suggest that limiting mathematics to these arithmetical manipulations is a bad thing and can possibly lead to a mechanical attitude which precludes understanding. Chemical calculations are an integral part of chemistry courses and need not be neglected. An alternative approach should be adopted in line with current mathematical practice.

Modern mathematics includes so much that is useful to the chemist such as Venn diagrams, flow diagrams, relations, mappings and functions. The time has come to exploit the best of this mathematics in the chemistry laboratory. It is not always easy for the hard pressed teacher to monitor relevant changes in other areas of the curriculum, but it is nevertheless his duty to adapt himself to the pupils and to use their kind of mathematics to connect his chemical experiments to his chemical concepts. He may be surprised, as we have been, to find that modern mathematics is not only sufficient but often superior to traditional mathematics in supplying the necessary tools for the teaching of chemistry.

The Course Itself

It is for these reasons that during the past year we presented a course for teachers in which we attempted to introduce some of the ideas familiar to pupils in mathematics and to apply these to the school chemistry curriculum. We decided to run a course of one evening a week for fifteen weeks suitable for chemistry teachers and teachers of science. We selected the School Mathematics Project as representative of modern mathematics because it is currently the most extensively used curriculum scheme in British schools.

Most of the applications of modern mathematics which we have been considering have been GCE O-level chemistry, rather than at a higher level, although there is considerable scope for work in this area. We did, however, devote one session to an example of the use of a mathematical topic in a research situation, when a colleague was invited to talk about the use of iterative processes and numerical methods in his chemical research.

(1) Changes

The first session was introduced by a member of the mathematics department who outlined some of the developments in mathematics and mathematics teaching. Changes in emphasis were discussed including the

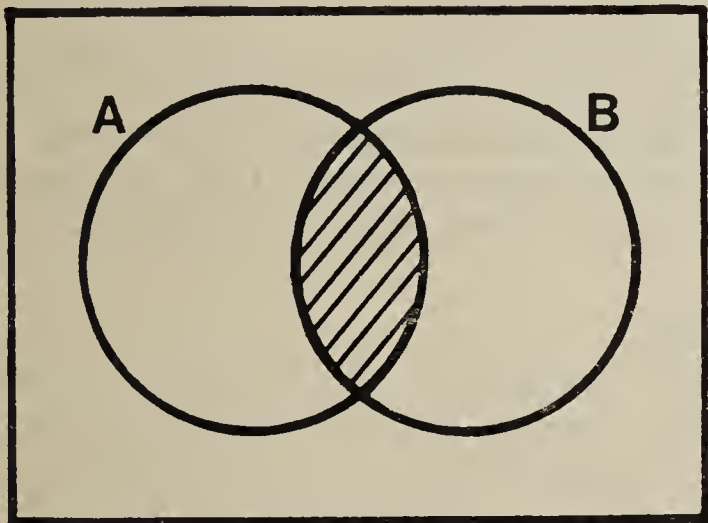
language of mathematics and its relevance to science teachers. This theme was developed in a later session which included an outline of the topics covered in the School Mathematics Project and the stages at which they are taught.

(2) Sets and Venn Diagrams

In chemistry one is often aiming to classify and hence simplify. This type of classifying activity is an important part of most modern mathematics courses. The classification of objects into sets and the representation of these sets into Venn diagrams is taught at an early stages in many courses.

In elementary chemistry we try to classify oxides as either acidic or basic, and typically encourage the pupils to make two lists. Problems arise with some oxides which exhibit both acidic and basic properties, and we often try to sweep these under the carpet until a later stage. By representing the set of acidic oxides, A, and the set of basic oxides, B, as a Venn diagram with the circles overlapping (See figure 1), the amphoteric oxides will be in the shaded area indicating that they have properties common to both.

Figure 1



The teaching of metals and non-metals can also be approached in terms of sets and Venn diagrams to avoid problems encountered in classifying an element as purely metallic or purely non-metallic. Many lessons begin by pupils suggesting properties typical of metals. Metallic elements are expected to be shiny, dense, malleable and conductors of electricity and heat. The properties of the elements are then recorded in a table. (See Table 1). The conclusions to be drawn from such data are not immediately obvious because some of the elements display some but not all of the properties expected of metals. The advantages of presenting the information in a Venn diagram can be seen(1). (See figure 2). Now we are referring to degrees of metallic character which is more realistic than listing as metal or non-metal. The most metallic of the elements, lead, copper and iron are included in all the three sets.

Another interesting extension of these ideas is in the investigation of pH and indicators.(2)

(3) Relations and Mappings

Many different sets are related to each other such as the set of animals, A, and the set of classes, B. The relation can be illustrated by an arrow diagram

(See figure 3), and can be described as 'belongs to the class of'. This is a many-to-one correspondence because many members of the set A are contained in one of the members of the set B. The relation illustrated in figure 4 'contains the species' is a one-to-many correspondence.

Table 1

	Conducts electricity	Shiny	Malleable	Conducts heat	Dense
Copper (Cu)	*	*	*	*	*
Iron (Fe)	*	*	*	*	*
Carbon (C)	*				
Lead (Pb)	*	*	*	*	*
Zinc (Zn)	*			*	*
Sulphur (S)					
Aluminium (Al)	*	*	*	*	
Iodine (I)		*			

Figure 2

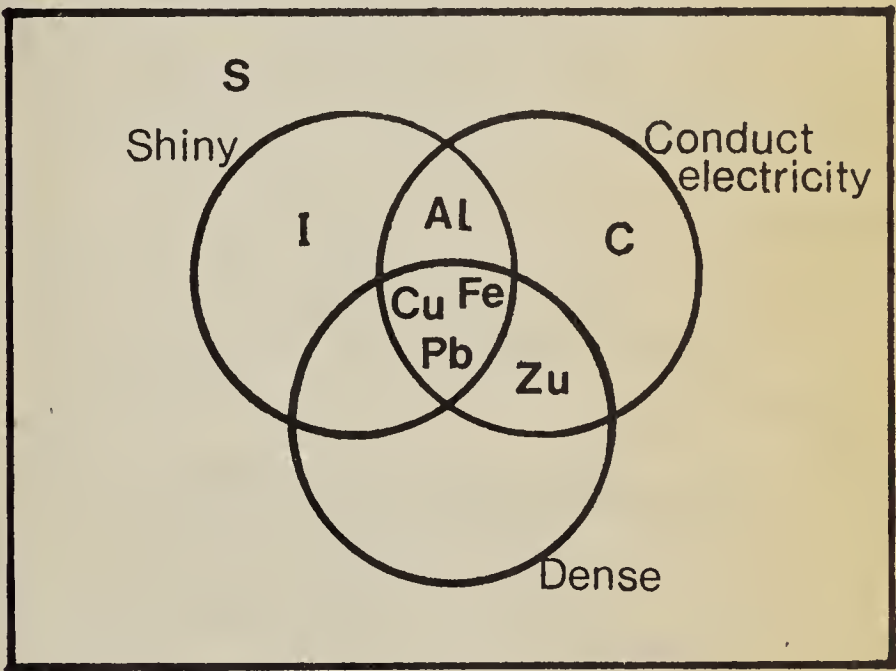


Figure 3

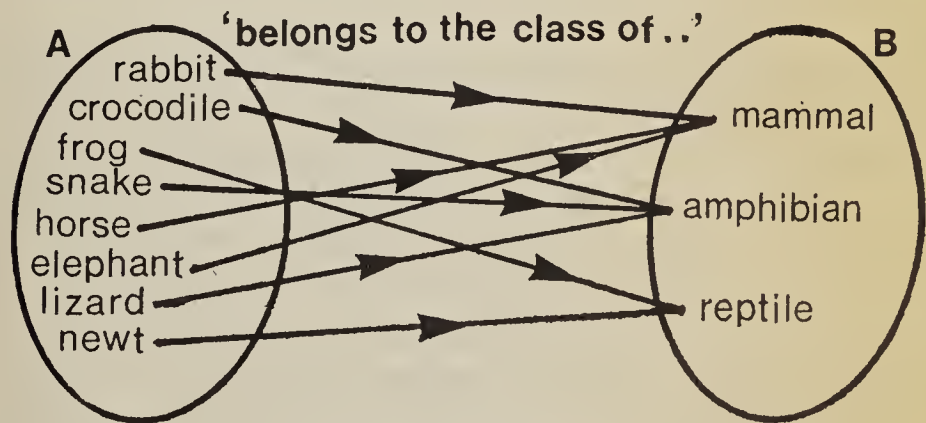
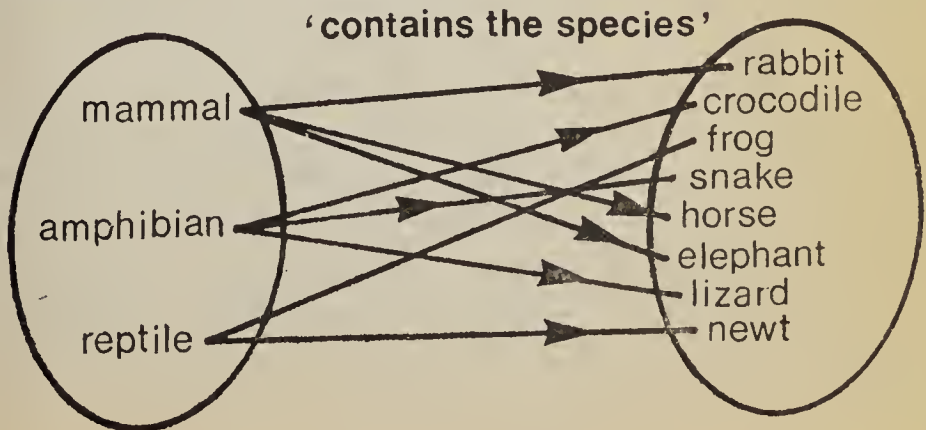


Figure 4



A function is a special kind of relation in which each member of the first set is connected with one member of the second set. Hence, the relation 'has a square of' is a function (See figure 5), but 'has a square root of' is not a function as each member of the first set is connected to two members of the second set (See figure 6). The use of arrow diagrams and the language of this mathematics were illustrated in establishing the ideas of relative mass and relative atomic mass, calculation of empirical formulae, introduced of Avogadro's number and other areas which have been traditionally taught using ratio and proportion.

Figure 5

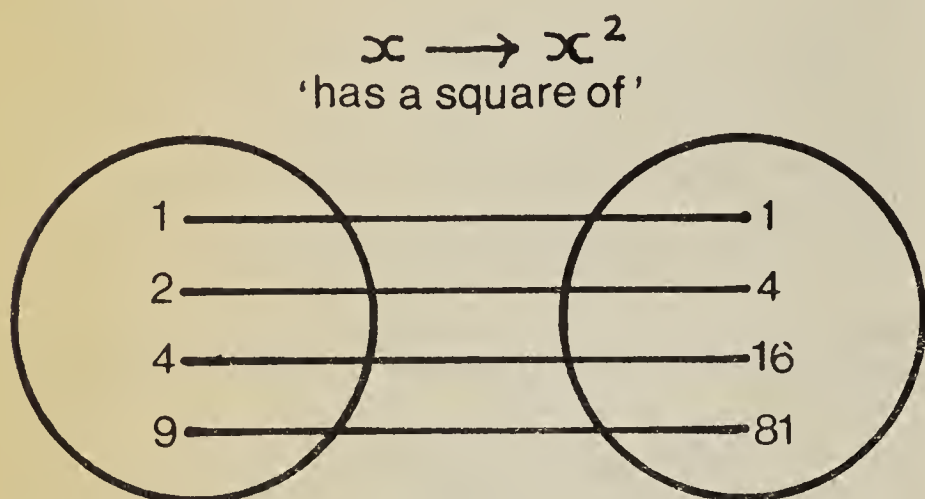
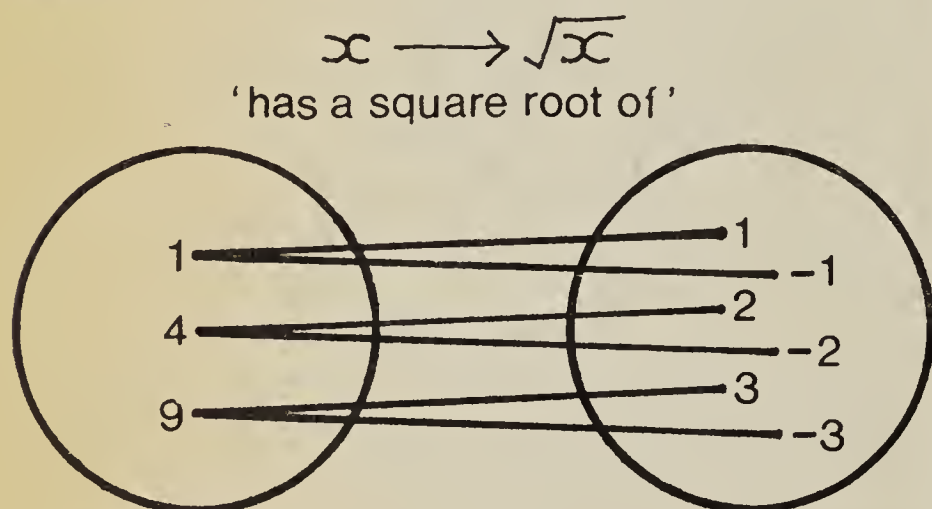


Figure 6



(4) Flow Charts

Many processes in science can be broken down into a number of small steps. Flow charts or diagrams are suitable to show this in a pictorial way. For example, pupils in an elementary chemistry course may be required to identify a common unknown substance by performing a series of tests. Decisions of what test is suitable will rely on information from a previous one. Part of such a flow chart is shown in figure 7.

Flow charts have been used in similar situations where the problem is complex. For example, we have used them in the interpretation of spectra of organic compounds. Here, they are intended as an aid in the early stages until the pupils are sufficiently confident to work without them. One advantage is that a complex problem is broken down into a series of smaller steps thus making it less formidable. Flow charts enable the pupils to work on their own with routine problems without the help of the teacher, so that his time can be more effectively used. They present a process in a pictorial form which is more easily followed.

This method of teaching will not be successful if pupils take short cuts and omit sections. Care is needed in using the charts as a teaching aid so that the pupils do not follow them blindly without thinking for themselves. To avoid this the teacher would be advised to discuss the design of the chart with the pupils before it is used. The solution to some problems may not be suitable to represent in this way. For example, some charts could be so complex that they could not be followed easily. It is for the teacher to weigh up the advantages and disadvantages of using a flow chart for the particular purpose he has in mind.

(5) Computing

Many schools now have their own computer terminals, and computing is taught at various levels (computer appreciation, programming, computer science as a GCE A-level course). Few science teachers are aware of the facilities that exist and so do not take advantage of opportunities. The teacher who is familiar with a terminal can use a computer in a variety of ways: (a) to perform tedious calculations; (b) to simulate practical exercises; (c) to set up self-testing situations for the pupils. The teacher can write programs suitable for his own needs if he is sufficiently familiar with programming, or he can make use of an existing library of programs covering a variety of topics.

We examined and tested programs in the chemistry section, for example programs on equilibria, kinetics, organic syntheses the periodic table. It was felt that the computing session was very profitable.

(6) Statistics

Elementary statistics is now covered at the early stages of a modern mathematics course. Statistics is the most experimental part of mathematics curricula, so a comparison between the approach of mathematicians and chemists is instructive. It can be seen that mathematics stresses design of experiment and discusses the validity of results. At present, science teachers, while paying lip service to this approach, have in practice been more conscious of obtaining the result. If the emphasis were less on the results and more on the design of the experiment, the meaning of the result and the relative importance of possible answers could be more valuable to the pupil.

Histograms and scatter diagrams can be used in presenting class results. In a typical experiment, to investigate combining ratios in a reaction, the pupils weigh the starting material and the product and calculate the ratio of the two before making a deduction. Difficulties have been encountered with the calculations. These difficulties could be reduced if the class results were presented in pictorial form. Only one calculation is required, based on the pooled information of the class. Not only is there this advantage, but the method enables some evaluation of the spread of the results, and a discussion of the possible errors involved. Each child's work is used and it can be seen from the scatter diagram that there is a constant combining ratio (See figures 8 and 9).

Figure 7

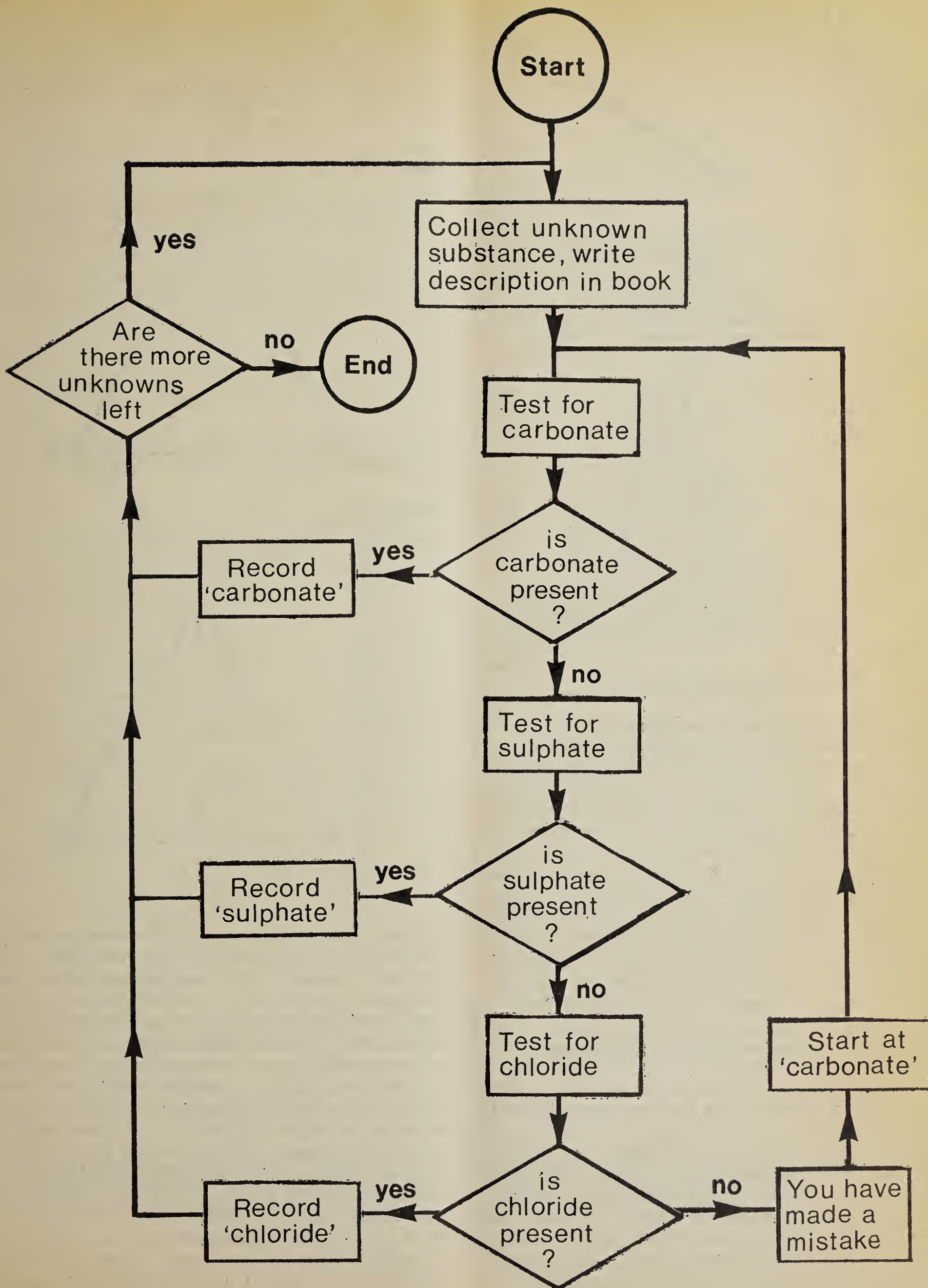


Figure 8

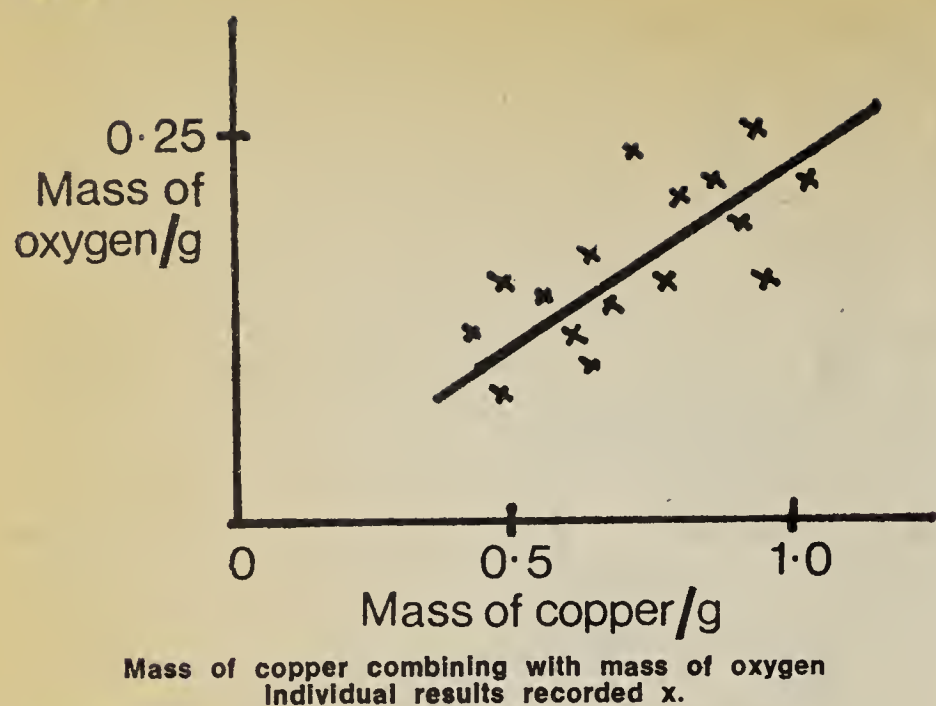
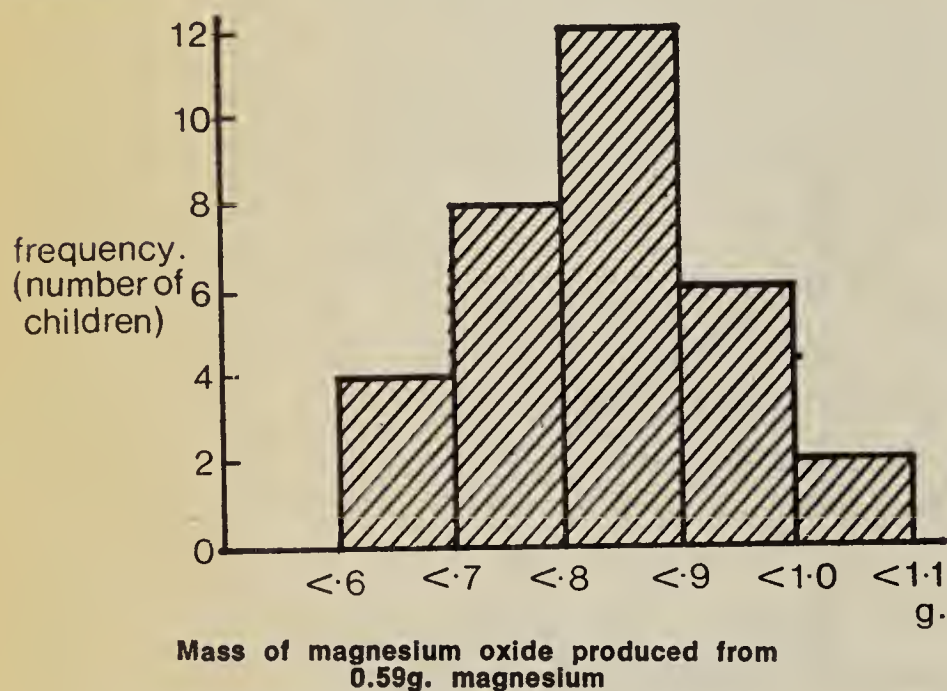


Figure 9



(7) Card Models, Symmetry and Isomerism

Pupils are familiar with making models of tetrahedra in mathematics courses. We use models based on tetrahedra in teaching isomerism in organic chemistry. Normally, however, the models used rely on coloured balls representing atoms which are connected by springs. If this method of teaching is adapted slightly it is possible to make use of ideas familiar to the children from their mathematics courses. The models are simple to make and various hydrocarbons can be made from a simple plan or 'net'. By folding a net in different ways it is possible to make a number of different models, illustrating the differences between the compounds. For example a net for butane C_4H_{10} is:-



This can be folded to give two completely different structures or isomers.

The teaching of structural isomerism can be approached from a symmetry point of view. A symmetry operation is an operation on an object which leaves it in a position indistinguishable from the original. For example, rotation of the equilateral triangle through 120° in a clockwise direction about an axis perpendicular to the plane of the paper (represented by a dot) results in $A \rightarrow B$, $B \rightarrow C$ and $C \rightarrow A$. (The letters

are used as markers only). (See figure 10). This operation is denoted by C_3 as three such operations produce the original. Another element of symmetry is the mirror plane. Reflection in a plane perpendicular to the plane of the paper results in $A \rightarrow A$, $C \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow C$, i.e. a shape indistinguishable from the original (See figure 11).

Figure 10

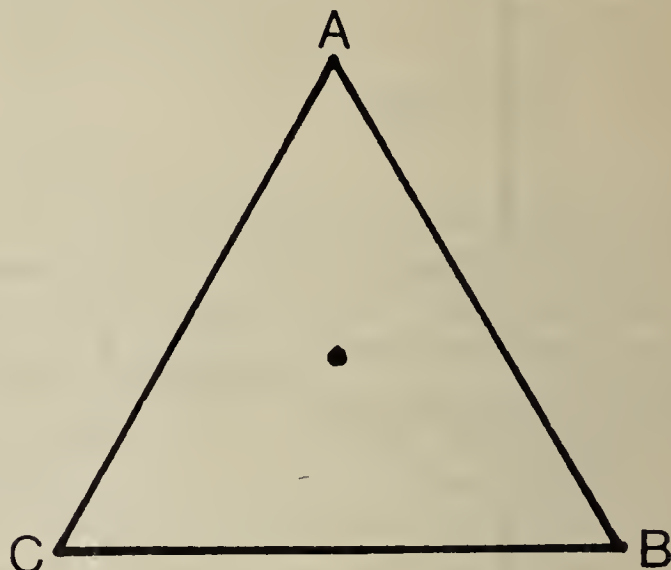
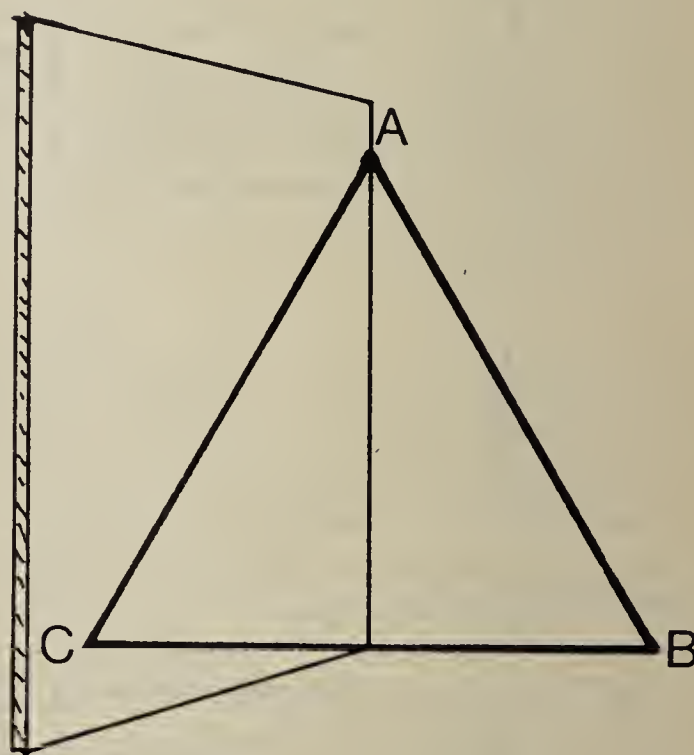


Figure 11



The number of structural isomers of a particular alkane can be deduced using these arguments. Starting with methane, CH_4 , represented by a regular tetrahedron, ethane C_2H_6 is obtained by replacing one hydrogen atom by CH_3 , i.e. sticking a second tetrahedron to one face of the original. As all four faces of a tetrahedron are equivalent (they are indistinguishable after applying a C_3 operation) it is irrelevant which face takes the second tetrahedron. So there is only one structure for ethane. Building up in this way and examining the symmetry of the structures produced it can be seen when any faces are not equivalent (i.e. not interconvertible by applying a symmetry operation), and this determines the number of isomers which can be formed by adding another tetrahedron.

Ideas of symmetry can also be used in introducing optical isomerism, and are not restricted to use with any one type of model.

Evaluation and Plans for the Future

In future, a much greater emphasis will be placed on symmetry and transformation geometry at a higher level. These areas have an important place in mathematics courses and are relevant to chemistry teaching. This was originally intended but the participants were fairly familiar with these aspects and so it was not appropriate to pursue them further.

A suggestion has been made that we could provide a course for mathematics in which they are made aware of the chemical situations which could be used as examples in their mathematics teaching. Apart from some minor changes, we feel that we have been successful in achieving our aims. Those that attended the course felt that they were given a starting point from which to seek out answers for themselves, and so be able to adapt to the needs of their pupils.

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We are grateful to Rob Brazil, a member of the Editorial Board of Ideas representing the School of Art & Design, Goldsmiths' College, for contributing the graphics for this article. (Ed.)

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UNIVERSITY OF LONDON GOLDSMITHS' COLLEGE. REPORT OF THE MARCH CONFERENCE 1978 MORAL EDUCATION

For more than sixty years, the first Saturday of March has been set aside at Goldsmiths' College for 'Conference Day'. For the past

twelve years, this event in the College's Calendar has been devised, organised and presented by the School of Education in collaboration with the Goldsmiths' College Association (of staff and former students), and as a consequence it has grown in importance in the context of the on-going educational debate in Britain. This year's Conference addressed itself to the major theme: MORAL EDUCATION.

The Report of this one-day conference is now available from the address shown below at a price of £1.00. It has been edited and published on behalf of Goldsmiths' College by Leslie A. Smith.

The sixty-two pages of the booklet contain the texts of the main addresses given by Dr James Hemming, who spoke to the title THE DIMENSIONS OF MORAL EDUCATION, and A. V. Kelly, Dean of the School of Education at Goldsmiths', who spoke to the title MORAL EDUCATION AND THE TEACHER. In addition, the Report presents summaries of the activities of the ten two-hour long discussion-group sessions: Moral Education and the Media; Moral Education and Health Education; Moral Education and Science; Implicit Religion, Values and Moral Education; Moral Education and the Hidden Curriculum; Moral Education and Curriculum Projects; Delinquency and Disruptive Behaviour; Moral Education and the Humanities; Moral Education and the Arts; and Moral Education and the Young: as well as a Foreword to the Conference by the Chairman of the Organising Committee and a brief description of the major exhibitions that were provided by The Schools Council, The National Foundation for Educational Research, and London's Learning Materials Service.

Copies of the Report are available from: The Publications Service, Goldsmiths' College, New Cross, London SE14 6NW, England.

* * *

The March Conference for 1979 is now being planned. It will take place at Goldsmiths' College on Saturday 3rd March, 1979. The theme to be explored: STANDARDS IN EDUCATION.

Details of this major event in the College's year may be obtained from Mr L. C. Williams, Conference Secretary, Goldsmiths' College.

Les jeunes de 16 à 19 ans et leur formation

Yves Roger, Inspecteur, Président de la Section Belge de la Ligue Mondiale d'Education

Introduction

Il faut bien se rappeler que la formation des jeunes de 16 à 19 ans s'inscrit dans la perspective de l'éducation permanente. Les jeunes de cet âge se montrent fort défiant à l'égard du monde et des systèmes qui le gouvernent. Or, ils ont besoin d'idéal, de clarté.

Donc le milieu de vie est déterminant pour le jeune, et par conséquent le rôle que l'école doit assumer en tant que milieu de vie stimulant et enrichissant.

Les jeunes de cet âge commencent à prendre conscience des possibilités qui leur sont offertes et en même temps ils se heurtent aux tabous moraux et sociaux et à leur propre incompetence.

A l'époque actuelle, c'est l'école qui matérialise à leurs yeux tous les obstacles. Ils recherchent la **contre-dépendance**, l'autonomie. Ils s'opposent à la famille, à l'école, à la société, à tout ce qui constitue 'l'image du père', et il faut bien se dire que ceci est normal, positif, inévitable, mais aussi transitoire. La contre-dépendance est une manifestation infantile, or il faut arriver à faire de l'enfant un adulte. Certes la relation 'dominateur-dominé' ne convient plus, elle conduit même à des réactions d'une atroce violence parfois. La psycho-sociologie nous a apporté dans ces dernières années des relations infiniment plus riches, où les partenaires en présence se sentent acceptés en tant que personnes. Passons donc en revue quelques-unes des solutions esquissées, proposées, inventées pour cette période d'âge.

Les deux extrêmes sont d'une part la suppression de l'école et d'autre part un encadrement beaucoup plus strict. Ivan Illich dans son livre 'La société sans école' formule beaucoup de choses justes.

Illich souhaiterait une formation en contact direct des personnes exerçant les diverses professions et métiers, sans rituel scolaire. Mais alors comment choisira-t-on son métier?



Les personnes exerçant des professions veraient-ils les apprentis comme disciples ou comme future concurrents? Tout le système corporatiste médiéval surgit à nouveau, avec ses cloisonnements, ses rivalités, ses isollements néfastes. Et à l'opposé il y a la solution de rendre obligatoire le service militaire à 18 ans, mais ceci semblerait venir du désir de 'mettre hors d'état de nuire'. Et les filles alors? Il semble bien que la solution doit être moins radicale, il faut trouver une formule de contact avec la vie réelle, mais dans le cadre de l'école. La formation de 16 à 19 ans doit être considérée comme le début de la formation continue et non comme la fin de l'éducation scolaire. Il faut arriver à exploiter le milieu dans lequel le jeune adulte se développe.

Citons l'exemple d'un projet pédagogique qui existe en Espagne, qui cherche à effectuer une réforme du baccalauréat en introduisant dans les trois années précédant cet examen des études et activités technico-professionnelles. Les élèves examineraient les problèmes multiples de la vie contemporaine et aborderaient de façon pratique la vie économique et agricole de leur région en association directe avec les producteurs. J'avais

vivement recommandé à l'UNESCO et au gouvernement espagnol qui m'avaient consulté à ce sujet la mise en oeuvre de ce projet mais malheureusement il n'a pas été poursuivi.

Une autre formule intéressante est celle de la formation diversifiée et décroisonnée. L'école devrait offrir une très vaste gamme d'activités aux élèves pour que chacun puisse y trouver une direction. Il faudrait aussi bien montrer les liaisons des diverses disciplines étudiées. Il faut examiner des situations réelles: par exemple dans l'étude d'une production agricole ou industrielle de la région, les aspects économique, géographique, technique et humain seraient tous associés. Nous en revenons donc à ce que l'école soit considérée comme un lieu de vie. Il faut pouvoir dialoguer, trouver une collaboration entre les jeunes, les moins jeunes et même les vieux. On imagine fort bien ici que les adultes qui cherchent à se perfectionner puissent participer aux cours, et un tel échange serait utile pour tous.

Avec ceci en tête, examinons donc les recommandations faites à Berne par les Ministres de l'Education.

Les préalables

La politique éducative doit favoriser l'égalité des chances d'accès aux différentes formes et aux différents niveaux d'enseignement. Pour ceci il faut repenser la scolarité antérieure, diversifier les objets d'étude, les méthodes d'enseignement et les critères de promotion.

Une expérience qui a commencé en Belgique en 1969 montre que comparer des disciplines différentes est moins difficile que l'on ne pourrait croire. Toutes les études nécessitent les mêmes opérations mentales: observer, analyser, comprendre, synthétiser, connaître, appliquer, critiquer, inventer. Ainsi pour démontrer une pompe à bicyclette il faut employer les mêmes opérations que pour comprendre une phrase latine. Ceci aide les professeurs à considérer leurs élèves non comme des objets à remplir de connaissances mais comme des personnes apprenant à utiliser leur cerveau. Ceci aidera aussi à favoriser les chances de réussite scolaire, à obtenir l'épanouissement de l'individu dans

le contexte général du développement de la société et en fonction des capacités et des aspirations de chacun.

Le second point préalable aux recommandations s'énonce comme suit: Le rôle du système éducatif consiste non seulement à assurer la transmission du patrimoine culturel et à préserver les valeurs fondamentales et permanentes de la société, mais aussi à enrichir ce patrimoine et à faciliter l'évolution démocratique de la société.

L'école doit développer un aspect dynamique et faciliter l'évolution démocratique de la société. En d'autres termes elle doit encourager la créativité des jeunes et assurer une formation civique active. Les élèves doivent participer avec les parents à la gestion de l'école, ils doivent pouvoir essayer des choses nouvelles mais si les résultats ne sont pas satisfaisants, il ne faudrait pas les pénaliser.

La formation civique est importante mais généralement fort négligée. Elle devrait permettre aux jeunes de prendre conscience des problèmes de vie de l'homme dans la société, de voir comment ces problèmes sont résolus par les institutions, les collectivités, les individus. Ils devraient pouvoir observer les hommes au travail, les questionner pour savoir pourquoi ils ont choisi ce qu'ils font, s'ils l'ont bien sciemment choisi. Pour le groupe d'âge de 16 à 19 ans, savoir ce que l'on veut faire c'est déjà la moitié de la réussite.

Les dix recommandations ressortent de ce qui est dit déjà.

1. Il faut diversifier les conditions d'enseignement pour obtenir une atmosphère plus adulte.
2. Il faut une pluralité de méthodes pédagogiques pour arriver à l'individualisation de l'enseignement et au travail indépendant de l'élève.
3. Il faut un décroisonnement des disciplines pour que les élèves prennent conscience de l'interpénétration des connaissances dans la vie quotidienne.
4. Il faut une formation à l'école qui tienne compte des informations recueillies par les élèves hors du milieu scolaire (contact avec le monde réel).
5. Il faut que les études et leur déroulement tiennent compte des aptitudes, des préférences

ces et des besoins sociaux des élèves, de l'évaluation de leurs capacités et des divers débouchés professionnels qui existent.

Ceci nécessite une observation de l'élève sans pour autant l'étiqueter, sans le classer rigidement alors qu'il est en plein devenir. L'apport de la psychologie est indispensable et l'évaluation doit accompagner la guidance, elle doit être continue et faire valoir les dynamismes et non les échecs.

6. Il ne faut pas imposer de spécialisation trop hâtive, il faut coordonner l'enseignement général avec l'enseignement technique et professionnel.

7. Il faut que l'enseignement soit flexible offrant une grande diversité de choix.

8. Il faut une formation psychopédagogique en relation avec le groupe d'âge considéré pour les enseignants, ainsi qu'une connaissance suffisante des diverses filières à temps plein et à temps partiel qui sont disponibles. Ceci est mis en oeuvre en Belgique avec les Centres Psycho-Médico-Sociaux, mais il faut cependant améliorer la formation des maîtres sur le plan psychopédagogique.

9. Il faut une formation complémentaire pour les jeunes qui ont choisi l'exercice d'un métier. Il faut assurer leur développement culturel et les préparer à leurs responsabilités de citoyens. Il faut commencer cette formation très tôt pour que ceux qui choisissent un métier aient déjà accompli cette démarche dans une perspective de solidarité civique et avec la conscience de participer à la vie sociale.

10. Il faut établir une participation pédagogique qui associe les différents partenaires des activités éducatives.

Je citerai ici un exemple concret que j'ai vu de près dans une école 'rénové' comme on dit en Belgique.

Dans cette école donc il existait un sentiment de malaise que le chef d'établissement n'arrivait pas à déceler clairement. Ici il y eut participation des élèves, des parents et des enseignants, ainsi qu'avec le personnel ouvrier de l'école. En premier lieu, en groupes séparés, les problèmes furent formulés. Je fus frappé par le sérieux des élèves qui ne cherchaient pas à dénigrer, par l'ouverture des parents qui connaissaient visiblement fort bien l'école, par la simplicité des ouvriers qui

s'intéressaient vraiment à 'leur école'. Une synthèse fut faite et des solutions furent ensuite recherchées. En fin de journée elles furent énoncées et décidées par l'assemblée plénière. Ici chacun recherchait le bien des autres pour améliorer la vie collective, et depuis ce jour le mot 'discipline' n'a plus été prononcé dans l'établissement.

Il existe déjà des établissements d'enseignement secondaire où une gestion associative est organisée. Un comité formé de professeurs, de parents et d'élèves se réunit régulièrement avec le chef de l'établissement pour traiter des problèmes de l'école. Ici le directeur de l'école joue un rôle primordial, et aussi les membres du comité doivent apprendre à dialoguer, à s'exprimer sans crainte de distorsion déformant la pensée et créant ainsi d'autres problèmes.

Une co-gestion ne va pas de soi. Les participants doivent s'y préparer afin de ne pas se considérer comme des rivaux mais comme des personnes qui souhaitent toutes l'amélioration de l'institution.

A mon avis une formation de cet ordre devrait figurer parmi les activités des jeunes de 16 à 19 ans. L'enseignement supérieur universitaire ou technique se plaint aujourd'hui du manque de maturité des jeunes qui leur arrivent. Une pédagogie de groupe comme il est indiqué plus haut serait un élément de maturation en même temps qu'une technique de travail.

Les problèmes de la formation avant 16 ans et après 19 ans

Ces recommandations furent complétées par une résolution portant sur 'les secteurs, méthodes et moyens de la coopération européenne intensifiée en matière d'éducation.'

Il s'agissait de:

1. la formation continue, c'est-à-dire la répartition des possibilités d'éducation sur toute la durée de la vie dans le cadre de la notion d'éducation permanente.

2. l'éducation pré-scolaire et ses relations avec l'enseignement primaire — secteur d'une importance fondamentale. On ne saurait trop insister sur le fait que les facilités ou les difficultés de la vie scolaire et peut-être de la vie toute entière s'installent dans la toute petite enfance. La psycho-motricité,

l'éveil de l'intelligence lié à l'environnement affectif de l'enfant sont les bases de tout le développement ultérieur. Il faut arriver à aider les jeunes mamans dans leur irremplacable mission. Les organismes familiaux peuvent jouer ici un rôle des plus importants.

3. l'éducation compensatoire destinée aux moins favorisés. Ici aussi il faut de la flexibilité, de la diversification dans les méthodes et des modes d'insertion dans le réel.

4. la réforme de la formation initiale et du perfectionnement des enseignants.

5. les problèmes d'éducation des migrants et de leurs familles — peut-être le problème humain le plus urgent, le plus délicat à traiter. Le Conseil de l'Europe s'en préoccupe.

Conclusions

Il faut changer bien des choses dans les structures et les méthodes de l'enseignement secondaire dans beaucoup de pays si on veut pouvoir considérer la période de 16 à 19 ans comme le point de départ de l'éducation permanente. Les pays scandinaves et quelques länder en Allemagne Fédérale ont une école unique se terminant à 16 ans. Ils sont les plus proches d'une solution tenant compte de la proposition envisagée. Ailleurs il y a beaucoup à faire. Il semble essentiel que les organismes familiaux et parentaux soient consultés ici, en vertu même de la suggestion des ministres. Les parents sont les interlocuteurs les plus normaux des techniciens de l'éducation qui cherchent à adapter les appareils de formation de la jeunesse et de l'homme aux nécessités de notre temps et ils sont bien en droit de demander des formations continuées . . .

Parmi les recommandations des Ministres soulignons le besoin d'instaurer des structures scolaires souples, afin de promouvoir un plus grand capital humain et de diminuer le nombre de ceux qui, blessés par le système actuel, finissent par se retourner contre la société et l'homme. Les critères de promotion doivent par conséquent être diversifiés eux aussi. Il faut rechercher des formules de participation. Et il faut aussi d'urgence établir une réforme de la formation des maîtres dont le rôle est totalement modifié par les perspectives nouvelles.

Toutes les propositions faites par les Minis-

tres seront étudiées et soumises à des expériences dans les divers pays. Il semble important que les organes représentatifs des parents ne soient pas simplement consultés, un peu latéralement, mais qu'ils puissent converser avec les responsables.

Dans le rapport de l'UNESCO 'Apprendre à être', rédigé par une équipe de hauts spécialistes mondiaux dirigés par Edgar Faure, il apparaît clairement que l'on ne peut plus envisager l'évolution de l'éducation sans la participation des parents, et à partir d'un certain âge, des élèves eux-mêmes. Ce rapport montre aussi que le temps est venu d'avoir de l'imagination.

Pour clore quelques réflexions que je viens de vous livrer, permettez-moi de citer une des conclusions de cet ouvrage magistralement pensé: 'C'est de ces choix et de ce consensus que dépend le rôle que l'éducation est appelée à jouer en ce moment de l'histoire, selon qu'elle orientera la pensée des hommes vers le passé ou vers l'avenir, vers la fixité ou vers la mutation, vers la recherche de la fausse sécurité par la résistance au changement ou vers la découverte de la vraie sécurité par l'adhésion au mouvement.'

EDUCATION OF THE 16 TO 19 YEAR OLDS

Yves Roger, Inspector; and chairman of the Belgian Section of the World Education Fellowship

The training of 16 to 19 year olds forms part of life-long education. These youngsters need an ideal, as they are growing up fast, passing from childhood to adulthood. At present, in their eyes, school represents everything against which they are revolting. They seek self-sufficiency and autonomy. They are against the family, school, society and this is a natural but transitory state of affairs.

There are various solutions suggested from a complete abolition of the school to a much stricter framework.

In his book, 'Deschooling Society', Ivan Illich would like training to be in direct association with professionals and tradesmen. But would the teachers regard their apprentices as students or as future competitors?

And then there could be compulsory military service at 18, but this would seem merely a ruse to put them out of harm's way. And what about the girls?

A better formula must be found: within the school. From 16 to 19 the curriculum should constitute the beginning of continual training rather than the end of school teaching.

Spain has tried to put into practice technico-professional activities and studies during the three years

preceding the final examination, the Baccalauréat.

The author recommended such a project to Unesco and to the Spanish government, but it was not followed up.

School for pupils in this age group should be envisaged as a practical course, a collaboration between the young and the not so young. Adults might well join in the classes and the resulting exchanges could prove useful.

Based on deliberations held in Basle, Switzerland, by a number of Ministers of Education, and subsequent discussion of them, the following ten recommendations are put forward:

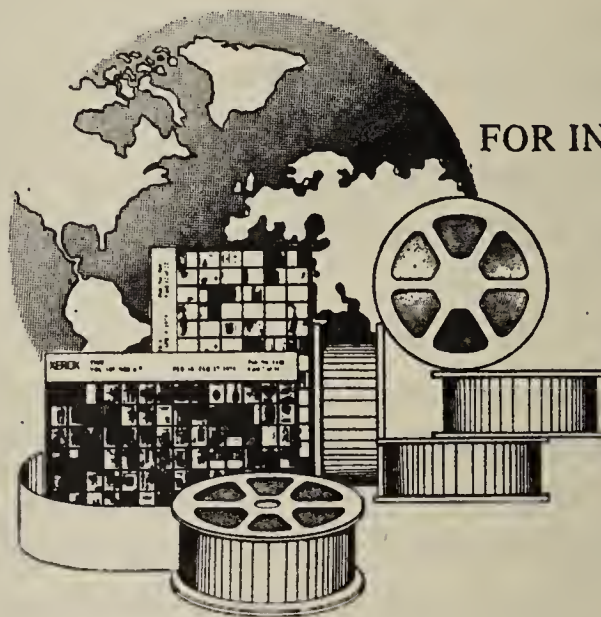
1. Variation in methods of teaching in order to obtain a more adult atmosphere.
2. Individual teaching and independent work by the pupils.
3. Interdisciplinary teaching methods so that the pupils become aware of the interpenetration of subjects in daily life.
4. School training to take into account information obtained by the pupils outside the school.
5. More awareness by teachers of aptitudes, preferences and social needs, better evaluation of the students' capabilities and of various employment opportunities.
6. Linking general education with technical and professional know-how.
7. Flexible teaching in which options are offered.
8. A training in educational psychology for the teachers and better knowledge of full and part-time courses — as possessed by the staff of the Psycho-Medico-Social Centres in Belgium.
9. Training in civics for those who choose a given trade.
10. Co-operation and discussion by the various partners in a school — teachers, pupils, parents and ancillary staff.

As well as the above recommendations, there was a resolution on 'methods and means of an intensified European co-operation in the field of education'. This dealt with life-long education; pre-school education and its vital role in the tie-up between intellectual growth and emotional relationships; extra tuition for the deprived; reform of initial and in-service training of teachers, and finally the problems of immigrants and their families — perhaps the most urgent and difficult problem to be dealt with, and indeed which the Council of Europe is studying.

If the age from 16 to 19 is seen as the starting point for life-long education many changes will have to be made. Parents, and from a certain age the pupils themselves, will have to be consulted more often, and highly flexible school programmes set up. Unesco's report 'Learning to Be', written by a team of specialists under Edgar Faure, sets out the position and urges that the time has come to show imagination.

We would like to thank Francine Dubreucq, Associate Editor in Belgium, for obtaining this contribution. We are also grateful to Dr Tony and Alla Weaver for summarising and translating the original article. (Ed.)

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Teacher Education — a key to the reform of the education system in the German Federal Republic

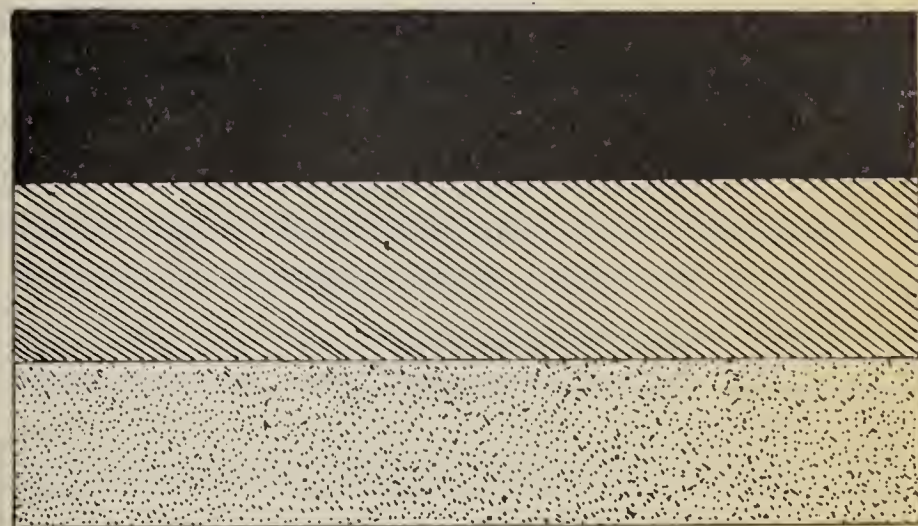
Hermann Röhrs, University of Heidelberg

(Translated and abridged by Raymond King)

In the German Federal Republic, teacher education takes a variety of forms. Differences in the academic standing and legal status of the various institutions concerned with teacher training bring about corresponding differences in the qualification structure. For example, the Pedagogical Hochschulen in Baden-Württemberg have not yet been granted full status as Hochschulen proper: there are Pedagogical Hochschulen which, through being linked with the University Education Seminars, are part of Pedagogical Faculties, as in Bayern: Hochschulen within the framework of the University, as in Hessen: Pedagogical Hochschulen federated in an Academic Hochschule for Higher Education with the right to confer its own degrees and admissions to the Faculty, as in Nordrhein-Westfalen: Hochschulen which have the status of Schools of Education, as in Rheinland-Pfalz: and lastly a Department of Education may form an integral part of the University, as in Hamburg.

Each of these models has its own possibilities and its limitations. As well as the more promising tendencies, analysis brings to light many inadequacies, mainly due to academic isolationism: on the one hand a form of 'theoreticising' that is not without its dangers, and on the other a system of practice in no way geared to educational theory, as well as lacking in systematic attention to its own theoretical content. This often results in a questionable kind of professional chicanery.

There is, however, one point on which they are all agreed: the conception that teacher education should be developed on an academic basis. But within this agreed conception there are differences of opinion on particular issues. Should teachers preparing for the traditional scholastic institutions follow



distinct and different courses of study? How should the place and conditions of specialised studies be modified to suit the nature and requirements of the studies in education? What is the role of practice? In the case of students intending to teach in Grammar Schools (Gymnasien), is the 'consecutive' pattern to persist, i.e. the specialised academic course followed by theoretical and practical teacher training at the post-graduate stage? Could, in fact, this consecutive pattern become obligatory for all teacher education? Or again, could the unitary conception of the concurrent course of the ordinary class teacher become a uniform pattern?

There is no agreement on these questions, nor on the forms of organisation.

And so it comes about that the discussions on the question of a **Pedagogic** Faculty that have started up again are being overtaken by the programme of proposals for Comprehensive Hochschulen, which proposals are essentially devoted to the question of teacher education.

Since the organisational framework and allied questions of the statutory academic status of the Hochschulen are of quite decisive significance for the development of teacher education, they are right at the forefront of the debate.

The Comprehensive Hochschule, while safeguarding the administrative-technical independence of the individual Hochschulen involved, would have an organisational structure that promoted endeavours to find common solutions for relevant undertakings in administration, teaching, and research. Thus between a School of Engineering and a Faculty of Natural Science, a School of Economics and a Faculty of Economic and Social Sciences, an Institute of Social Pedagogy and the University Education Seminar, there might be a great deal of business that would bring them together; and co-operative work on their problems might lead to a community of intellect and commitment that would favourably promote their pattern of activity and their independence.

In spite of all the reservations there may be about academic mass-production, the Comprehensive Hochschule meets so many needs that it ought to be given a trial.

A Comprehensive Hochschule of the kind envisaged would bring together in a pedagogical nucleus the University Education Seminar, the Post-Graduate Course, the Pedagogical Hochschule, the Music Hochschule, the Institute for Teachers in Special Schools, the Social-Pedagogical Institute etc. Within this framework the endeavour would be made to evolve the pattern of a programme for all students taking part in the education courses. Such a consolidation of energy and effort would overcome provinciality. Putative elitist modes of procedure might prove what creative virtue they in fact possess in the encounter with the new actualities and realities. On a true evaluation of these realities, the Comprehensive Hochschule, in order to fulfil its purposes, would include the University Faculty of Education.

The co-operative creation of a Centre for Education Studies does not of course do away with the need to establish separate departments for specialised courses, for example, in the teaching of music, the economics of education, pedagogical technology etc. But the Comprehensive Hochschule would offer the possibility for mutual understanding among the different specialisms, and of pedagogical co-ordination.

The development of a Pedagogical Faculty,

which the Comprehensive Hochschule would help rather than hinder, would make it possible to find the right solution to the large number of problems of the modern Hochschule.

One problem is the course of studies of the future grammar school (Gymnasium) teacher, having regard to the broad spectrum of specialisms involved. A second problem area embraces the didactic content of the courses in the Hochschule, which can only carry out its work effectually by embedding its specialisms within the framework of a Faculty of Education with suitable centres for the mass media, television, and teaching apparatus and materials.

Thirdly, there is the as yet not generally envisaged field for educational studies that consists in opening up a pedagogic dimension in an additional range of academic departments. It is simply incomprehensible that the future doctor, jurist, or architect is not made familiar with matters of adult education, remedial teaching, juvenile delinquency, and the educational relevance of living conditions. Let us take the case of the doctor: a man's illness is part of his history and — apart from specific medicinal correctives — can be conquered only in the context of his life style. The jurist who does not in his judgements take into account the educational possibilities of re-socialisation is just a technocrat and not the guardian who aims to awaken and guide the better rather than isolate the worse.

It is a mark of intellectual isolationism in the expert when he fails to integrate his expertise and specialist knowledge with the lives of people in need of education. In economic science, as in every human science, there are questions that concern every man. Economic man is also educable man, and these characters should be conjoined. Many of the disciplines in like manner betray their anthropological limitations.

The most weighty argument for the establishment of a Faculty of Education consists in the fact that only by such means can the main scope of education studies covered in the modern Hochschule be handled. There is need here for a thoroughly new beginning, but the direction and scope of it has still to

be worked out.

Studies in educational practice must form the pivot of the courses in the Faculty of Education. The aim of these studies is not so much to give pre-practice, or actual practice, as to give a practical basis for educational thought and reflection. In this process there are three mutually supportive phases: first the inculcation of the pedagogical attitude and viewpoint. For this purpose typical sections of real educational activity are chosen, from nursery school to adult education. The student is made familiar with a variety of teacher profiles, and gains a clear grasp of educational concepts and their application.

Secondly, the didactic initiation into the development and analysis of teaching and instructional styles. This should take place in schools which directly co-operate with the Faculty of Education in learning and research.

Thirdly, in the education laboratory — in connection with the methodology of research — it will be possible to prepare studies and test them for their validity and consistency.

The introduction of this procedure involves and requires the realisation in practice of educational theory; and reciprocally the theoretical clarification of practical educational reality, as — at least in part — a validation of the research. This gives rise to a permanent dialogue between theory and practice, and so to **intellectual practice** as a salutary complement to intellectual theory.

A fourth consideration is the quite decisive necessity in modern education for critical training in the use of practical teaching skills. Hitherto the intellectual groundwork of teacher education has tended to lead to results that give us food for thought, in that those who graduate from the courses are frequently unprepared for day to day demands of work in schools. The indispensable practical capacities and skills do not follow as a matter of course from intellectual reflection.

Schleiermacher's reference to the peculiar dignity and virtue of practice does not mean that we can neglect theory, but it does imply that the discussion of educational theory must be practice-orientated. This condition is fulfilled by the micro-teaching at the Stanford

Centre for Research and Development in Teaching, and also by the Mini-Course that is being developed in the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development at Berkeley.

These developments touch upon a fundamental problem in teacher education, Practical proficiency does not simply result from theoretical insight into the complex of teaching problems: there is always a gap between the two. The 'master-lessons' of the old teachers' seminars have been given up; but as yet procedures that go beyond them have not really been developed.

What is essential is the establishment of an all-embracing relation between theory and practice. Hence real teaching situations in schools must be at the centre of teacher education. This is where all the disciplines represented in teacher-education, from the psychology and sociology, must find the seed-bed for pedagogically orientated study and reflection.

Hence the three phases of teacher education dealt with above, as well as being mutually supportive, form an instrumental and cohesive whole. This relation of studies to educational actuality is neither a diminution nor a limitation. It is what essentially trains the teacher, while at the same time making for a consistent theory. It may come as a surprise to some that, in quite remarkable consonance with the demand for practice- and project-orientated courses, the complaints about 'class-room shock' have palpably increased! — an observation that is borne out by the many reports of inadequate preparation for actual teaching of candidates for teaching posts.

A problem not yet touched upon which, however, stands in causal relation to the above findings, is the training of the teacher-educators themselves. So long as the shortest and surest route to posts of teacher-educator by-passes attested practical teaching experience, practice will not serve as the pivot on which reflection upon education turns. Hence the metatheoretical capers that unwittingly express teaching practice not mastered: hence the nebulous pedagogical speculations that seek to come to terms with the problems out of the blue!

The conditions for a practice-orientated theory do not exist when a prestigious but misleading pursuit of 'pure scholarship', and reluctance and unpreparedness to get involved in the field set the standard. Hence it should be required that all lecturers engaged in teacher education should have had recent and successful experience in the kind of institutions for which they prepare their students.

If nowadays the criticism is continually made in schools of all kinds that a dry-as-dust teaching routine prevails at the expense of the contentment, gaiety, joy, and happiness of the children, it goes to show in no small measure the results of a false conception of teacher education. Teaching and educating thrive neither on the tenets of faith nor knowledge, unless these can be translated into the power to shape things, and mediated through procedures fertile in ideas, and the liveliness of exposition and intuitive clarity that come from one's own close contact with life. These gifts come neither from nature nor from didactic studies: they are to be cultivated in the same way as is the understanding of child life, which the school can be designed to provide.

The initial stage of teacher education should bring about the pedagogical awakening of the teacher, and initiate a process which, to be successful, must be periodically shored up by obligatory arrangements for continuation studies. These have become a necessity in all responsible vocations in a dynamic society and are especially necessary for teachers if they aspire to promote a learned profession. But the theoretically explicated professional ethos and educational learning with a practical dimension must come together in a creative unity.

A substantial reform of teacher education, and so in the end of the schools, is not to be accomplished by merely secondary measures. It is the pedagogical experience, enriched by reflection upon one's own early life, that provides the model, not general theories of innovation. A quality of reflection, brought into the service of values like truthfulness, sincerity, decency, and fairness is vastly more important than defining empirical sense criteria or discoursing on a hypothesis.

All educative work in teacher education and in school requires continuity of development and consistency of pattern. This is where the commonly underestimated pragmatism of practice has its fundamental significance; since — in accordance with the basic concept of pragmatism — it critically works out the experiences of the first phases of the exercise in order to make them into firmer groundwork for the second step.

A viable internal reform of education postulates a similarly grounded pedagogical attitude on the part of teachers.

Thus the beginning of every change in the province of pedagogy has to be introduced by teacher education.

NOTES ON RESOURCES

FLASHPOINTS IN WORLD HISTORY — SHOOTING AT SHARPVILLE

An invaluable paper about Sharpeville has been prepared by Charles Freeman. It is intended for use with 16-18-year-old students, and contains: an introduction to the events at Sharpeville, 21 March 1960; a series of comments and accounts from South African sources to show varying ways in which the events were perceived; a series of comments from various observers outside South Africa; some notes on what Sharpeville revealed about South Africa in particular and about concepts such as power and freedom more generally; a short bibliography; and suggestions for further study. Further information is available from the Extramural Division, School of Oriental and African Studies, Malet Street, London WC1E 7HP.

MAZINGIRA

'Mazingira' is the Swahili word for environment. And it is the title of an excellent new international journal published by the Pergamon Press, Headington Hill Hall, Oxford, OX3 0BW, from whom further details can be obtained. It contains clear and authoritative articles on world environment issues, written with the non-specialist in mind, and is attractively designed and illustrated.

PANAMA

Panama and the Canal Treaty is a useful booklet about the background and possible effects of the recent treaty between the United States and Panama. It concludes that 'whilst the Carter/Torrijos treaty symbolises the modernisation of the relationship between the two countries, it does not in reality herald any fundamental change in Panama's dependency on the United States.' It is published by the Latin America Bureau, P.O. Box 134, London NW1 4JY.

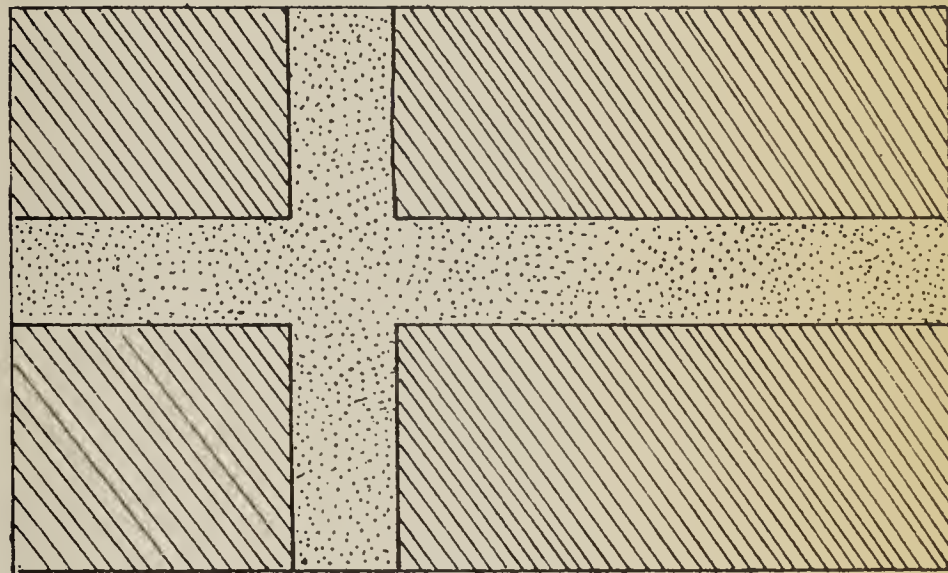
Continuing and In-Service Education: current developments in Sweden

Wynne Davies, School of Education, University of London Goldsmiths' College

The 1960s were for Sweden what Olof Palme, Minister of Education 1967-69 and subsequently Prime Minister, described as the 'education decennium'. The educational ideology of the ruling Social Democratic Party had, over a period of thirty years or so, been outlined in Party programmes particularly those of 1945, 1960 and 1968, and implemented in a series of Acts of Parliament. Reports of the National Board of Education had both inspired and reflected this policy, the overriding objective of which had been clearly expressed in the public statements of many leading politicians of the period as that of 'the creation of social and cultural unity throughout Sweden'. To the desire to promote the growth of a co-operative democratic society was allied the need to maximise the effectiveness of the country's human resources both in the interests of the individual and of society. Hence the aim to create 'a flexible education system without blind alleys'.

There was widespread acceptance of the view that the school could and should be a means of achieving these objectives. The emphasis in the 1960s was, therefore, on the development of the 'grundskola', the common compulsory nine-year comprehensive school. In the later 1960s and early 1970s, this was accompanied by a move to integrate the various differentiated secondary schools into the 'gymnasieskola' which was ultimately to incorporate the academic, technical, commercial and continuation schools. Within the nine-year comprehensive school there was to be a common core of subjects and in addition there was to be a variety of optional 'lines' for the upper age-ranges. Streaming was to be discouraged and mixed-ability teaching encouraged.

A further objective was to promote 'equality between the practical and the theoretical lines' so that 'none of the various types of



differentiation is to be seen as superior to others . . . In the last analysis the reform of education is a political question' (Palme). Less emphasis was to be placed on formal assessment based on examinations and the awarding of marks, while various alternative forms of assessment were to be researched and developed.

The conversion to a comprehensive system was well underway before the end of the 1960s and was, at the level of the 'grundskola', formally completed by 1973. In the same period considerable progress had been made towards the achievement of the other objectives in spite of the opposition of those politicians who disagreed with the underlying ideology and those teachers who were wary of the practical and educational implications of the reforms for them as professional teachers.

The extensive reorganisation of the school system was accompanied by major changes in the structure and organisation of the curriculum though not in the content of the curriculum itself. Changes had been introduced only after consultation and after widespread dissemination of information, much of it based on research findings, but there was still considerable unease in Sweden as there was elsewhere. There was the fear that standards were declining in schools, and some evidence

that truancy was on the increase and that many pupils were bored and apathetic. Other critics, including many who were advocates of the comprehensive school and the reform programme, had come to realise that equality was an elusive goal; that access to the various forms and levels of education was still restricted; and that the 'invisible curriculum' had assumed greater significance as a consequence of some of the reforms. This was tending to inhibit the progress of their pupils whom the reforms were designed to help.

These doubts and fears led to the setting up in 1970 of a commission of the National Board of Education to consider the situation in comprehensive schools. After four years work, the commission published its report entitled 'Skolans Inre Arbete' (the inner workings of the school). This was to provide the basis of the parliamentary resolutions of 1976 and of subsequent legislation, and was a significant step forward not only in the evolution of the school but also its relation with the wider 'working environment'. The climate it sought to promote within and beyond the school was intended to encourage the development of continuing education, and the demands it was to make on teachers were such as to make the development of more extensive in-service education almost inevitable.

A recommendation readily accepted was that 'schools should, more fully than at present, take into account the assumptions, the experiences and the realities of pupils' lives'. In drawing up the curriculum and in planning school activities far more consultation was required between pupils and all other school personnel, and to facilitate this, class councils were to be set up by 1978 with a right to be consulted over the planning of programmes of work. Teachers were formally required to see that the system was instituted and maintained. The curriculum was not to be restricted to academic work but should contain 'a wide range of meaningful activities' which would include much that was traditionally thought of as leisure-time pursuits. Parents were to be given a place in policy-making and to be encouraged to participate more fully in school affairs. The class teacher was required to meet parents at least twice

in a school year for individual discussion or at class-meetings; and parents were to serve on school management boards. The schools were to involve not only parents but others from the local community, by providing programmes of work which would utilise the skills of a range of people from commerce, industry, agriculture, youth movements and other community associations so that 'school and society might be more fully integrated'. Again, many activities might be located outside the school and many of these should be organised by various forms of community association. Youth Organisations were encouraged to make provision for the 7 to 11 year olds as well as those from 12 to 24, and extra funds were made available for this purpose. These were some of the ways in which it was hoped to create a more fully integrated school-day in an integrated community. So, too, was it hoped to foster a more positive attitude towards school and an education which would continue into adult life.

A major part of the 1974 Report and the subsequent parliamentary legislation were concerned with the school and the world of work. This had been a recurring theme in Swedish education in that the curriculum had long contained a vocational element and work experience had been provided for older pupils. The Report firmly advocated that contacts between school and working-life should be widened. Pupils between the ages of 13 and 16 were to spend at least two weeks per annum in a place of work; and opportunities to visit these places were to be extended to pupils between the ages of 7 and 13. In addition to the formally arranged work experience, older pupils were to be encouraged and helped to obtain further work experience in their spare time and during school vacations.

In 1969 Palme spoke of the future of Swedish education in terms of a system of recurrent education. This view of on-going education was perhaps more readily accepted in Sweden than elsewhere because it had behind it a century old tradition of adult education associated with the Folk High School or similar institutions. Originating with adult education institutions in rural Denmark, and designed to meet the needs of an agricultural

proletariat, they had been modified to meet the demands of urban industrial workers of twentieth century Sweden and had accustomed people to seeing educational institutions relate their work to the needs of a particular locality. Trade Unions, too, had played a significant part in the struggle for adult education, and employers had come to accept and support the various forms of adult education in the belief that an educated workforce was likely to be a more efficient workforce. In this climate it was possible to propose extensive additional provisions of adult education and in-service education in the Report and the parliamentary Resolutions in the mid-1970s. The problem of unemployment, particularly of those in the age group of 16-19, also helped create a situation in which the reforms had every chance of being accepted.

There were already quite extensive provisions made for vocational training for the over 19 year-olds who were unemployed, and courses for mature entrants over 25 years of age. The Reforms of 1974-76 were designed to provide more work-linked courses for those of 16 or over who needed them so that all in the 16-19 age-range were guaranteed either school experience or employment. Workers generally were to have a right to attend courses after working for an employer for six months and the right to choose the course was left to the employee. Financial arrangements were to be made to compensate the worker for loss of earnings. In 1977 major proposals for reform of the Swedish Higher Education system were presented to parliament by the centre-right coalition government, and at this level one sees similar principles being applied in that there was to be a unified framework of higher education institutions, and opportunities were to be provided for higher study to be made recurrent. These reforms do not establish an 'open' system of Higher Education, but they do modify entry requirements so that those with work experience and only limited formal educational qualifications have more opportunities to get in.

The new arrangements made considerable demands at all levels upon teachers. They found themselves in mixed ability classes; they were required to plan in conjunction with

parents and with various groups and individuals outside the school; and they had to help coordinate the work of many people who now were to contribute to the education of children and adults. The parliamentary proposals suggested a timetable for initiating the reforms and emphasis was placed on the need for in-service training to prepare teachers for the changed situation. An eighteen-month in-service programme was suggested for head-teachers and their deputies which included a number of study periods together with, at other periods, 10-12 hours per week of study in staff-seminars and on visits. Known as the PLUS programme, designed at the Institute of In-Service Training at Linköping, it was intended to help headteachers, deputies and other school staff develop observational and evaluative skills and help them to contribute more effectively to planning within their schools. In addition, staff teams of eight to ten members were to be provided with in-service courses with the emphasis on co-operative working. All teachers were themselves to spend a period of two weeks per annum in industry as part of their in-service education, and it was recommended that all entrants to the teaching profession should have a period of work experience before embarking on a training course.

Two other aspects of the reforms are of interest in relation to continuing and in-service education. The first is the rather uncharacteristic emphasis placed on decentralisation and on local decision-making. Much is still prescribed from the Central Government through the National Board of Education, but over matters such as the decision whether or not to introduce the integrated day with pupils grouped in 'work-units', much is left to the local authorities. One factor prompting this change in emphasis may be that the reorganisation of local government, by reducing the number of 'kommuner' (areas of local government) from over 2,000 to fewer than 300, has provided stronger units of local government to which powers may be devolved. The changed composition of the National Board of Education, which may have weakened the influence of 'traditionalists', maybe another factor prompting change. The most important factor, however, may well be

the positive desire to encourage participation and develop a more truly community education. Planning of courses is to be a shared process with local committees playing a leading role; planning of work experience is to be in the hands of local planning committees containing representatives of schools, youth organisations, community organisations, trade unions, and employers associations. Served by a full-time secretary, they are charged with the task of promoting in every way possible cooperation between school and work, school and society.

Secondly, substantial funds were to be set aside for the implementation of reforms. In addition to the normal per-capita grant, additional help was to come from 'strengthening grants'. To finance change within the comprehensive school, 200 million Swedish kroner were made available together with 65 million S.Kr. for the schools which adopted the integrated day. 25 million S.Kr. were to go to Youth Organisations to help them extend their provision, while the budget of 1977-79 was to make available considerable amounts of 'extra grant' to help develop the work of linking school and the world of work. The Government and the local authorities accepted the principle that those from outside school who devoted their time and skills to help the development of the education system should suffer no financial loss, nor should those who, at whatever stage in life, availed themselves of the opportunities provided by the system.

The reform programme in Sweden has been a long and extensive one. It has also been costly. For the most part the Swedish people would seem to accept that it has been money well spent. The fact that the reform grew out of the long tradition of support by the organised labour movement and by employers, for educational advance, has allowed change to proceed rapidly. A commitment to organised, researched, and planned change has allowed the policy-makers to provide information on which the changes can be evaluated. The question that remains to be answered is whether, in the changed political situation and the less optimistic economic climate of the late 1970s, the ideals underlying the proposals of 1974 and 1976 will be

fully realised and whether the strength of the educational tradition established over many years will be such as to maintain the momentum of the reforms in the face of growing difficulties. By more fully integrating the school with the locality; by encouraging fuller participation by pupils, parents, and others in the life and work of the school; by forging stronger links between school and the world of work, the Swedes have already done much to establish during school-days the basis of a system of continuing life-long education which its advocates believe will prevail.

Postscript

Ester Hermansson, Associate Editor in Sweden, has helped us considerably with the preparation of this personal article written by Wynne Davies. In response to reading the draft of the article, she made the following comment:

'The New Swedish School Programme was first outlined by a parliamentary school Commission which started its work in 1946. All of the five political parties in the country were represented on the Commission; and when its Programme was put before Parliament, it was accepted unanimously and became law in 1950. During the Commission's deliberations, the Social Democratic Party's programme of 1945 was expressed first and foremost not by Olof Palme (at that time a private secretary to the Prime Minister, Tag Erlander), but by Alva Myrdal, the leading lady of the movement pressing for 'the creation of social and cultural development' . . . Widespread acceptance of the Programme existed among leading politicians of all parties at least to the point where nobody was clearly against it.'

Wynne Davies is Head of the Secondary Department in the School of Education, Goldsmiths' College, a post he has held for seven years. A Welshman blessed with a fine singing voice, he spends a great deal of his leisure-time with a Welsh male-voice choir based at London; and he drew upon another interest — all aspects of Swedish life — which started when he was a boy living with his Welsh parents in Central Sweden, to contribute this article for Ideas.

INTERNATIONAL FORUM ON LIFELONG INTEGRATED EDUCATION

11, 12 and 13 December 1978

at Unesco headquarters in Paris

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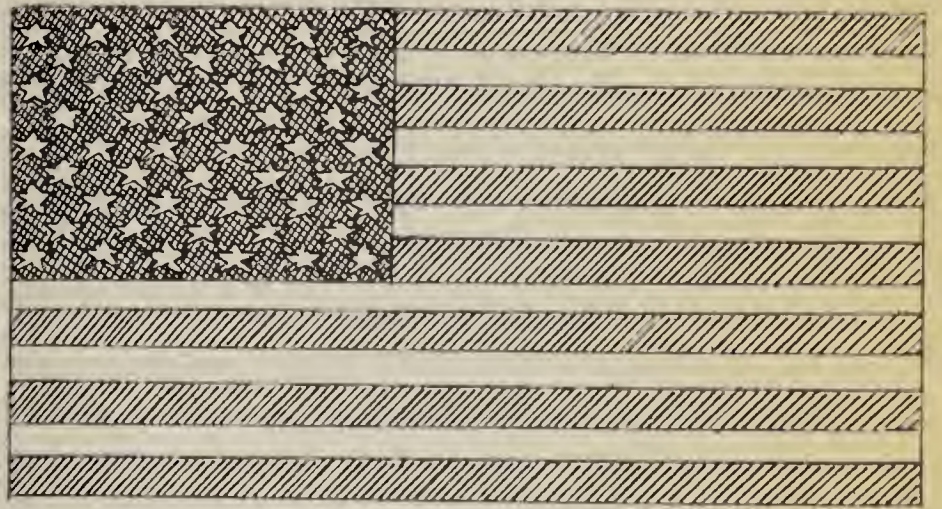
A glance at adult education in the United States

Angelica W. Cass, City College, City University of New York

The last decade has seen a phenomenal expansion in support for the provision of various types of educational opportunities for persons aged 16 and over throughout the USA. In particular, that component of these educational opportunities given the broad title 'adult education' has been afforded a much higher priority than hitherto. There are a number of reasons for this increase in support.

The birthrate in the USA declined steadily from 1970 barring a slight upturn in 1977. The lengthened life-expectancy manifest throughout the nation has given impetus and motivation to continuing and recurrent education. Increasingly, older adults are demanding 'something to do' that will be useful to both themselves and to others. The mandatory retirement age of 65 has been toppled from its pedestal: persons holding federal government positions may now continue to earn as long as they are able and willing. Seventy will soon become a common retirement age in the private sector of the economy.

It is becoming clear that the increasing attention being paid to this phase of living has vital national significance calling for an examination of current practices in fiscal support for training and re-training opportunities for adults. There is a seen need to evaluate how effectively adults are being prepared to keep alert and well-informed about changing demands which emerge from a changing society of which they are a significant part. In this present-day society, educational institutions are acting upon an ever-developing understanding of basic educational principles; and, in particular, this means that they are recognizing the need to provide educational activities which relate to the needs of individual people, to inter-personal relationships, to the community and its problems, to earning a living, to raising a family, and to society in general. Within these developing educa-



tional programs, high priority is being afforded to 'decision making' and the ways this process may be used by individuals so that they may enhance their ability to cope with new situations, new problems, as they arise. It is recognised also that the 'processes of coping' are skills which are acquired, developed, sharpened with the aid of basic knowledge needed by individuals as their lives unfold; but it is appreciated by those educators who are involved in these educational programs that the 'curriculum content' must be interwoven with the real life-experience of each individual person.

In recent years, there have been changes in our understanding of how and why adults learn — the motivations behind the desire and need to learn. New developments in mass media have played, and will continue to play, an important role in adult education. With the accessibility of radio, television, newspapers (even comic books adapted for mature adults), more people are being exposed to a variety of information and problems with which they need to cope. Adult learning is influenced by changes taking place in the immediate environment of the people concerned as well as on national and international levels; and educational activities created for adults must take account of this fact of life.

Formal and Informal Education for Adults

That we are living in what has been termed a 'learning society' may well be considered unique. Today, more than seventeen million adults are enrolled at the college level. More than 700 educational institutions in the USA are currently offering credits towards a college degree to anyone who has 'learned a lot from life'. Thus we find programs labelled Adult Basic Education (ABE), and General Education Development (GED) leading to a high school diploma or certificate and available in each of the fifty states; or Continuing Education that may include any type of learning activity that adults feel they need.

In this context reference should be made to the Lifelong Learning agreement of UNESCO, the Mindale Lifelong Learning Act, the Older Americans Act. Federal fiscal allotments are made to each of the fifty states by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare for the purpose of meeting adult learning needs. In the last decade, programs and activities of further learning for adults have made progress and we find that they have:

1. Built up a body of opinion among those who recognize that adult education has made an impact upon public opinion — a factor of political significance as well as of educational importance to those who have already benefited from the opportunities provided.
2. Developed a broad base of institutional sponsorship consisting of public and private educational institutions, community agencies and groups, as well as local chapters of national organizations concerned with furthering adult learning opportunities by providing the skills needed to become and remain employable as long as possible.
3. Begun to produce a curriculum of its own based upon the specific needs of adults in the various regions of the nation.
4. Created new methods and strategies of learning specifically designed to fit the unique needs of older learners.
5. Accumulated a body of theory, research, knowledge, practices and methods about learning by adults.
6. Developed an expanding corps of persons trained in teaching and counselling adults.

Careers in the field of adult education in-

clude agricultural agents, industrial training personnel, labor union directors, government agency training personnel, health education training personnel, directors and workers in religious education, television programmers, social agency staff workers, and public and private school teachers and administrators.

Formal or 'Credit' Education for Adults

Classes are conducted in weekly or tri-weekly series either day or evening to match the free time of the individual; and in some training programs, classes are offered five days a week for those who are unemployed.

A major program is directed at the large segment of the population who lack any formal schooling; for those who have completed schooling at less than the 8th grade (elementary school); and for those who lack 12th grade completion (secondary or high school diploma). In this area of educational activity, we find ABE programs and classes, and GED programs leading to a high school diploma or certificate when the mature students pass the required examinations. To enter the GED program, demonstrated ability in reading at the 8th grade level and a commitment to the study of five subject-matter areas are required; but it is proving to be a popular program in its own right as well as a stepping-stone to higher education in view of the fact that the GED diploma is accepted by most colleges as meeting their entry requirements. It is of interest to note in passing that this type of educational provision (through to the 12th grade) is tuition-free in the tax-supported programs that are available in every state.

The next level is that of the two-year colleges for those who are unable or who do not desire to complete four years of college work. Generally speaking, these shortened courses provide training for the trades and services which are needed by the American economy. The four-year colleges offer bachelor degrees to all who demonstrate a desire and ability to work at this level. Post-graduate degrees — Masters and Doctorates — are offered in many subject-areas including business and public administration. These, also, are available in every state and major city for all of those people who meet the required standards of academic performance and who are

able to pay the tuition fees. For those unable to afford the tuition fees at the time they join a program of study, there are several types of student-loans and scholarships available. Many of the colleges and institutions of higher education now offer courses and degree opportunities free of tuition fees to persons 65 years of age and older.

Recent Trends

In the early part of the Twentieth Century, the educational thrust in the USA was directed towards the newly arrived immigrants. Educational activity focused on the teaching of English and the preparation for US citizenship. The latest trend highlights college and university level education, and may be expected to continue until the year 2000 AD and beyond.

As part of the current trend, the educational provisions being made for that segment of the population sometimes referred to as the 'graying of America' have increased rapidly in scale and variety. The population group concerned is composed of persons who are over the age of fifty-five. The age-group is sub-categorised into adults who are 'mature' (55-65 years of age); who are 'older' (65-75 years); and 'aged' or 'frail' (75 years or older). This group of people may be identified further as those approaching retirement age (55-70 years and over); those faced with the actual day of retirement; those about to go 'over the threshold' as well as those 'in the swim itself' and on their own (70-75 years and over).

At present, persons 65 years of age and older represent approximately 22½ millions. About 45% of them live in the states of California, Illinois, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Texas and Florida. The number of 65 year-olds has doubled during the past seventy-five years, and is expected to reach the 31 million mark within the next twenty-five years.

From every group of one hundred older persons, 43 are men and 57 are women. Most of the men are married; the majority of the women are widowed; there are four times as many widows as widowers. Seven of every ten reside with their families; nearly one-quarter of the age-group live alone or with some relative; there are three times as many

women as men in this housing situation. Half of this group have had 8th grade (elementary) schooling or less, half have completed high school or college. However, in each one hundred persons in the former group, eight men and eight women have had either no formal schooling or less than five years schooling and, therefore, are considered as 'functionally illiterate'. Adults in this segment of the population are becoming more and more aware of their need for further and continuous development of whatever formal education they possess; and there are signs that some of their needs are being met. Recent newspaper articles carry headlines such as 'Adult Courses in a Crowded Market', 'The Campus Takes on Varied Shades of Gray', and 'Schools Feel Impact of Graying Population'. New York University's School of Continuing Education is now in the 1,000 course league. Other colleges are eager to offer courses for adults. All educational institutions are being affected by the movement to cater for the varied needs of the adult population in one way or another.

Many people in their 50s and 60s have been drawn to the study of aging itself (gerontology) with the intent of becoming sufficiently knowledgeable to work with older adults either in academic activities or in institutions maintained for the elderly frail. Study of the implications of retirement has been made by professionals from a variety of disciplines; and programs aimed at preparing people for retirement and for coping with life when retired from their employment have assumed an urgent place in the field of adult education.

To help adults who are nearing retirement or who have already retired, many agencies offer information and assistance to help these people face up to the often traumatic experience of the short term and long term effects of retirement. In particular, the American Association for Retired Persons (AARP) with eleven million members is the largest and strongest organization for older persons in the USA. For a few dollars a year, members enjoy an impressive variety of services. Membership is open to anyone who is 55 years of age or older; and persons do not have to be

retired to join. The Association's retirement guides and monthly magazine and news bulletin offer up-dated information which complements the programs provided by other agencies in the field of adult education.

In this brief survey of adult education, particularly that which is provided for the over-fifties, the writer has tried to present samples of the various types of educational activity that is taking place currently in the USA. It is obvious that a great deal has already been done to improve the scope and quality of adult education, and that the current scene reveals that a large number of developments are underway. But if advances in the education of adults are to continue to take place, then a conscious effort must be made to ensure that this area of education receives the degree of priority it needs and deserves. The changes will not take place by chance or by accident but, rather, because of requests and demands that opportunities for learning be made available. In this respect, the professionals involved in adult education will have to work with their students and potential students in defining these requests and demands in educational terms; and then through the use of effective public relations campaigns increase public awareness of the educational needs that are continually emerging. Legislation is needed; funding is needed; and the general public and legislators alike must be encouraged to support initiatives taken in the field of adult education, and create an environment in which further initiatives might flourish. These are not easy tasks to accomplish, but the rewards of success in broadly conceived programs of adult education are high if enhancing the quality of living of millions of people is viewed as 'rewards'.

The writer has great faith in the learning power of adults, partly through research findings and study, but mainly through first-hand experience in teaching and counselling in the field of adult education. The desire to continue learning does not abate perceptibly when it is directed into channels that provide satisfaction and 'success' (whatever this may mean) for the individual learner. This is a truism throughout educational practice. Educational activities that are closely rela-

ted or interlocked to life situations of the participants are at the heart of sound education; and in this respect, adult education is well to the fore in putting this educational tenet into effective practice.

We would like to thank Dr Helen Lahey, Associate Editor of The New Era in the United States, for obtaining this article from Angelica Cass in response to our request for cross-national contributions to this issue of the journal. (Ed.)

ST. CHRISTOPHER SCHOOL LETCHWORTH

is an educational community of some 500 boys, girls and adults practising education on sane and successful modern lines. The seven school houses provide living and teaching accommodation for children from 4 to 18. It is situated on the edge of the Garden City, amidst rural surroundings and beautiful gardens.

BOOK REVIEWS

MAJOR WORLD RELIGIONS

RELIGION IN CHINA, Richard C. Bush, 82pp.

AFRICAN PRIMAL RELIGIONS,

Robert Cameron Mitchell, 100pp.

BUDDHISM, Donald K. Swearer, 92pp.

General Editor: Donald K. Swearer

Argus Communications, Niles, Illinois, USA

£1.50 each, limp

This series is intended by the publishers 'to present the religious traditions of Judaism, Christianity, Islam, Hinduism, Buddhism, China and Africa in their unity and variety'. The three titles listed above represent the efforts of three American scholars to meet this intention. Each area of religious belief and practice is described in terms of its cultural context and historical tradition. The authors, whose approach is objective rather than evaluative, nevertheless manage to combine the dissemination of knowledge with the development in the reader of a sensitive and empathetic awareness of the beliefs and feelings of followers of each faith. For example, in **African Primal Religions** an account is given of the Egungun festival through the eyes of a fourteen year old boy, 'Dele, who is himself learning what it means to be a member of the Yoruba. Each book in the series is attractively illustrated by means of colour photographs and in addition **Religion in China** has black and white diagrammatic representations of the symbolism of the I Ching. The section on Chinese Folk Religion relates to its practice today in Taiwan. Finally, in **Buddhism** the complexity and diversity of belief and practice are admirably surveyed by the editor of the series after focusing initially on the ordination of a young Thai into the sangha.

Argus Communications and their team are to be congratulated on their achievement so far with this series. They have combined sound, academic scholarship with a high standard of communication and presentation. These three titles at least provide sixth form teachers and college lecturers with material which they can without hesitation recommend to their students, and anyone who is interested in the belief systems which underpin diverse societies today with an introduction to the historical, doctrinal and socio-anthropological insights necessary for understanding.

GWEN PALMER,

Senior Lecturer in Religious Studies,

Hertfordshire College of Higher Education, Wall Hall

WEF NEWS

Italian Section

During the three day meeting that our research group will hold in Rimini from 10 to 12 June, we shall examine the results of the study on which we have been working during the past two years on 'Inter-changeable roles in the family', with particular regard to the situation in Tuscany. We have already contacted the Study Center of La Nuova Italia Publishing House, where our previous meeting was held in 1976, and we hope to be able to organize the meeting early in the Fall. In Rimini we shall also devote our attention to a third study on 'The image of the future in the young', which we have already started in collaboration with the 'Laboratoire de Psychologie Scolaire' de l'Institut de Psychologie de l'Université René Descartes de Paris through the personal contacts we established during a week study visit we paid to the Laboratoire in Paris last year. We would like to present and discuss the procedures and results of this study in a third Section meeting as soon as it has been carried through, probably in the Fall of 1979.

LAMBERTO BORGHI

Florence, 1 June 1978

WORLD EDUCATION FELLOWSHIP

WEF is a non-profitmaking, non-sectarian and non-political organisation which since 1920 has promoted new approaches to education at all levels. Over the last five decades it has attracted many outstanding educational pioneers in its aim of the fuller development of the individual at all stages of growth in our now globally interdependent world society. WEF considers education as a continuous process throughout the life of every individual, and aims at creating a world perspective based on mutual understanding amongst citizens of our one world, and hence a better life for all mankind. It has influenced the progress of education in many countries through the activities of its 30 sections in 21 nations, coordinated from World Headquarters in London, England. News letters and magazines, notably the globally circulated 'New Era', keep members fully informed of developments, and regular national and international conferences brings members together.

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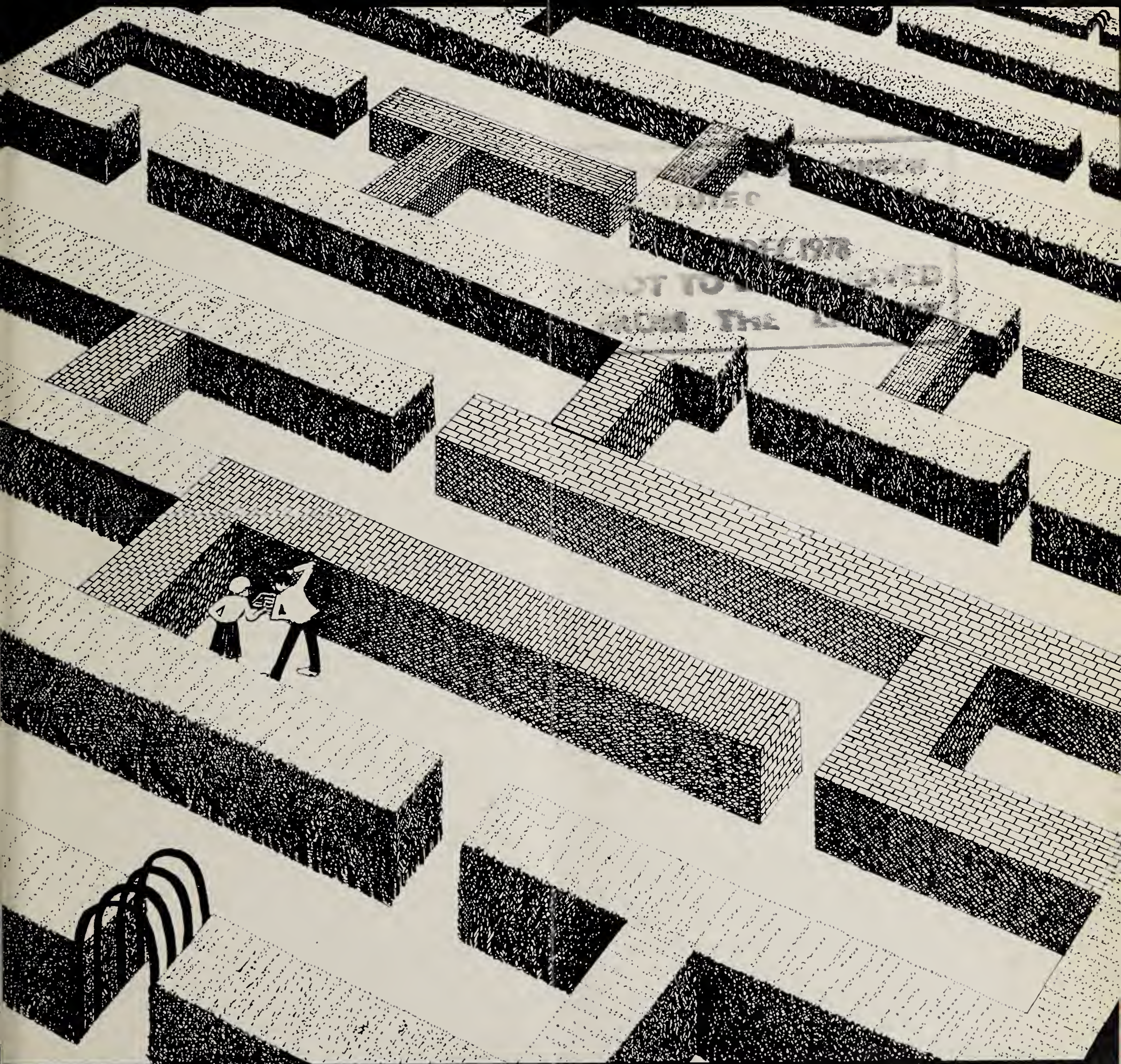
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THE NEW ERA

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*Director 250
SPT to Mr Roosevelt*



IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

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IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

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Cover: the cover design is by **Fiona Bell Currie**, as are all illustrations in this issue not otherwise attributed.

Editorial

The word 'maze', dictionaries tell us, has had a variety of connotations over the centuries, and a variety of echoes.

The definitions include 'a network of winding and interconnecting paths', 'delusion, deception', 'labyrinth', 'a structure made of intercommunicating passages of bewildering complexity', 'confused mass etc'. The derivations include an English dialect word meaning stupefy, daze, bewilder; a Norwegian dialect word meaning exhaustive labour, whim, idle chatter; and a Swedish dialect word meaning doze off.

Thus the cover of this issue of **The New Era**, conjoining the image of maze and the theme of inservice education, means many things. A complete gloss on it would itself be full of twists and turns, deceptive short cuts, agreeable diversions, and exasperating dead ends.

Four main paths seem at least worth trying, into the maze of connections. First, there is the obvious point that the overall field of inservice education is itself labyrinthine. Who should provide inservice education? In what types of location? With what purposes and benefits in mind? At what stages in a teacher's career? What are, and what should be, the links between inservice education and initial training?

Maurice Craft, in his opening article here, gives an overview of the main issues. Particular projects and proposals are then covered in each of the remaining articles — the topics include school-based inservice education in the United States, a weekend workshop with an experimental format in England, a curriculum project run by teachers in Scotland, the Open University, and the College of Preceptors.

Maurice Craft refers at one stage in his article to a recent new emphasis in inservice education: 'school-based work, involving action-research, requiring the participation and professional introspection of a whole school department or an entire staff, taking account of the views of pupils or parents, and . . . contributing to the development of educational policy and the growth of educational theory.'

This emphasis, which is expanded and illustrated in the two articles which follow ('School Improvement Through Global Education' and 'How Does a Workshop Work?'), recalls a second implication of the maze metaphor. Each school, each curriculum, each teacher's career, is a network of winding and interconnecting paths. An aim of inservice education is presumably to help teachers find their way — no, to make their way (breaking down barriers, bringing new light, getting more air) — in the situations in which they work.

Then also there is the point, third, that each separate inservice course or conference or workshop for teachers may — or may not — be experienced by its members as 'a structure of bewildering complexity'. This is the subject-matter of the article entitled 'How Does a Workshop Work?'

Finally, fourth, there is this issue of **The New Era** itself. There are very many links between its various articles. Each article can be read as leading into, and also out of, each of the others. But also, from these pages, there are countless ways out — into workplaces in schools and colleges.

The Continuing Education of Teachers: context and development

Maurice Craft, University of London Goldsmiths' College

This issue of *The New Era* is a joint issue with *Ideas*, number 39, and *World Studies Bulletin*, number 46.

The introductory article by Professor Maurice Craft, and the articles later by David Grugeon, Peter Baynes, A. V. Kelly and J. Vincent Chapman, were prepared for *Ideas*. They were commissioned and edited by Leslie Smith, who has contributed also the following introductory notes about them:

'This issue of *Ideas* in *The New Era* concentrates on the in-service education of teachers. It follows on naturally from *Ideas* No. 38 which took an international view of "continuing education"; and narrows the view through its emphasis on the role of in-service education within the broader concept of continuing education and through its presentation of articles obtained from educationists in the United Kingdom.

'We feel that through the presentation of viewpoints and descriptions of activities underway in the in-service education of teachers in one country, the degree of emphasis that should be placed upon this facet of continuing education is given a chance to 'shine through the words'. Professor Maurice Craft argues convincingly

about the importance of the teacher's role in modern society; and all of our contributors point to the need for a steady advance in the development of educational programmes calculated to enhance the quality of teaching at all levels.

'This issue of *Ideas* points to areas where exciting progress is being made in this search for quality; but it also reveals the scale of the task confronting the United Kingdom and the degree of urgency the tackling of this task assumes if teachers are to be supported in their vital work by all members of the society they serve.

The messages we received within the pages of *Ideas* No. 38 from eight countries printed in the last issue of *The New Era*, indicate that the urgency we speak of is a matter of world-wide concern. Perhaps as we study the implications of the International Year of the Child, we should add "AND THEIR TEACHERS" to bring home the force of our need as teachers for support in our desire to improve our understanding of our role and the skills needed to execute it effectively.'

Teacher education is always news and not surprisingly, for teachers have for many years been by far the largest of all the 'professional' groups of workers in the national labour force. As long ago as 1861, 44% of all professionals in England and Wales were teachers — four times as many as their nearest rivals in religion or nursing. By 1921, teachers still formed 45% of all those in professional occupations, with nursing (16%) and engineering (9%) a long way behind. In 1971, teaching remained well to the fore (25%, for the whole of Great Britain), with nursing still at 16%. But by now, a group of newer professions in engineering, technology, town planning, had gone ahead with almost 30%, and others such as chemists, metallurgists, physicists and social welfare workers had continued to move forward.

The Economic Background

Both these statistical events, the growth of a large teaching force and the parallel rise of other professional groups based on science

and technology, are part of wider changes typical of all complex societies. As occupations in the so-called 'primary sector' decline (agriculture, forestry, fishing) and the 'secondary sector' (manufacturing) reaches a large but stable proportion of the work-force, it is the 'tertiary sector' (services, public administration, and the professions) which grows, and in Britain this has meant a rise of from 29% to 51% between 1851 and 1971. But there are qualitative as well as quantitative changes. With the establishment of a substantial and stable manufacturing base in the secondary sector, the need for more advanced technical skills increases, and the proportion of clerical, supervisory and administrative occupations within manufacturing industry also increases. Indeed, one of the most striking changes in modern industry has been the spectacular growth of an 'administrative overhead' — from 9% of all industrial employees in 1907 to 37% in 1974.

So the traditional role of education in industrial societies, in contributing to a basic

literacy and numeracy, and to the transmission of the particular attitudes and values associated with more complex urban and bureaucratic forms, comes to include a responsibility for the development of a wide range of technical and administrative skills and aptitudes, some of them of a very advanced kind. Of course, the teacher's role clearly has other than purely economic dimensions; and further, some would argue that not only has there been some evidence recently of a preference for wage-earning rather than continued education among young people, but also that the skills element in educational credentialling has been exaggerated and that the growth of the educational establishment owes more to professional imperialism than to economic need. Be that as it may, the overall long-term demand for qualified manpower is unlikely to do other than rise, and the same is true of the demand for education from disadvantaged social groups, ethnic minorities, girls and adults. Secondly, the most recent figures again demonstrate that earnings and educational qualifications are linked, and that while the income of those with tertiary education continues to rise throughout life, that of others actually declines. So it seems likely that the teaching profession will continue to form a key sector of our national life, and teacher education a 'vital industry'.

Changes in Teacher Education

Like most aspects of modern societies, teacher education is subject to changing needs. Indeed, it might be argued that few social agencies have demonstrated greater flexibility particularly in recent years, and this changing profile may well be indicative of the central place of education in our society. From its beginnings in the 1840s when English teacher education consisted of some 22 church training colleges, it had doubled by the end of the Victorian 'golden age' in the 1880s; and with the coming of secondary education, university departments of education, and non-denominational Local Education Authorities' (LEAs) training colleges, teacher education had more than doubled in size again by the mid-20th century. But some of the most significant changes were yet to come. First, an emergency training scheme at

the end of the 1940s, followed by a spectacular increase in student numbers (from 40,000 to 120,000 between 1962 and 1972), and then, after an agonising reappraisal culminating in the James Report of 1972, a fundamental reorganisation which has left teacher education both more fragmented and yet more firmly a part of higher education.

Although the most dramatic aspect of these changes has been numerical and has been linked directly to economic and demographic changes in society at large — the provision first of free elementary and then of secondary education, birthrate bulges, the trend to staying on, teacher wastage through increased and earlier marriage, and immigration — a significant element of change has been qualitative. The establishment of university departments of education, and the university link with the training colleges which began in the 1920s and was more fully developed in the 1940s, undoubtedly liberalised the regime of the colleges; and although the Robins Committee's recommendation in 1963 that all teacher education should be embraced within university schools of education failed, the initial training course had been extended to three years in 1960 and the new B.Ed. degree, now rapidly becoming the basic qualification for teaching, was established a little later.

Growth of In-Service Education

The steady expansion of continuing education, or as it is more commonly called, in-service education for teachers, has also been an important part of these qualitative changes. Perhaps one of the clearest indicators of this is that the numbers of one-term and one-year courses have grown remarkably, and an increasing proportion of the longer courses is now offered outside the Universities, in colleges of education and higher education. Both one-term courses and one-year 'special courses of advanced study' as they are known, have doubled over the past five years, and there are currently over 170 and over 210 on offer, respectively.

Like the greatest expansion of initial training, growing interest in the continuing education of teachers dates largely from the 1960s. The Plowden Report in 1967, for ex-

ample, firmly recommended the continuing development of in-service and advanced courses for practising teachers. As the Report put it, 'The three-year course is no more than a basis. In-service training provides a necessary superstructure', and it went on to recommend that each teacher ought to have a substantial period of in-service training at least every five years. Cane's pilot survey, published in 1967, suggested that virtually half his sample had experienced little or no further professional training. On the other hand, many teachers were willing to become involved, and the subsequent more extensive enquiries by the National Foundation for Educational Research in England and Wales (NFER) and the Department of Education and Science (DES) found that over three-quarters of the teachers consulted had been. But the greater part of their in-service experience had been with short courses — amounting to perhaps three days a year — and including relatively informal meetings and discussions, and teachers' centre activities.

By 1972, over six hundred teachers' centres had come into being in less than a decade, and it was in that year that the James Report was published. This report was devoted entirely to a review of the education and training of teachers in England and Wales, and it is remarkable that in its recommendations for re-organisation the highest priority was given to the expansion of opportunities for in-service work. The Committee considered that pre-service training, induction and in-service training should be seen as a continuing and interrelated process, in which 'the essential pre-requisite is that there must be adequate opportunities for the continued education and training of all teachers, at intervals throughout their careers'. Only then, the Committee felt, could initial training be as functional as appears to be necessary at that stage. To this end, the report recommended that at least one term in every seven years (and later, one in five years) should be devoted to in-service work. James was followed quickly by the Government White Paper, **Education: A Framework for Expansion**, which fully accepted the report's priorities and its specific proposal that 3% of the teaching

force should be released from the classroom at any one time — a fourfold increase on existing provision. This, the White Paper felt, would be 'a necessary investment in the future quality of the teaching force', and it proposed that the 3% release target should be reached by 1981.

Developments in the 1970s

Since 1972 a radical re-structuring of teacher education has been largely completed, and by the early 1980s the annual output of teachers will be some 20,000, less than half the 1973 figure. At the same time, and in a climate of greater financial stringency, there has been the emergence of a cooler assessment of what has been achieved by teachers and teacher educators over the past decade or so. This has, after all, been a period of unprecedented change in the structure and organisation of British education, in the length and content of schooling, and in the scale and format of teacher education. As the Secretary of State expressed it in the Foreword to the 'Green Paper' of 1977, 'there are times for self-examination followed by the setting down of new objectives and new ways of reaching these objectives. We believe we have now reached such a time'. This Governmental Command Paper, issued as a consultative document, has both reflected and contributed to a contemporary debate about the curriculum, about standards and assessment, and about teachers. Although the debate was sharpened by the Prime Minister in a speech in Oxford in 1976, it had been gathering momentum for some time — with the publication of the Bullock Report in 1975 and the establishment of the DES Assessment of Performance Unit that year, and with the publication of the Taylor Report in 1977 and the increasing concern with 'accountability' in education.

Echoes of these preoccupations have been appearing in a number of western countries, and teacher education has, as always, been a central feature. William Taylor's recent analysis for the Council of Europe identifies a continuous sequence of five elements in what appears to be an emerging model of teacher education: selection, certification, induction, continuing education and career

development, and the 'Green Paper' of 1977 has considered teacher education in much the same way. In considering the in-service element, the document states that the current expansion is to be continued to the 1981 target, and although the implementation of the programme is left to LEAs it lists four main priorities to be borne in mind by providers: the special problems of multiracial schools, immigrant communities, and schools in deprived inner urban areas; the development of language and mathematical skills, particularly at the primary stages; the improvement of professional competence to recognise and cope with pupils' handicaps; and the training of senior teachers in school organisation and management, including curriculum planning and design.

Future Concerns

In this brief sketch, I have suggested that the role of teachers (and therefore of teacher education) is crucial in an advanced industrial society, and that the changing fortunes of teacher education over the past 130 years chronicle massive social, economic and political changes in society at large. But the development of teacher education has been qualitative as well as quantitative, and the expansion of in-service education exemplifies this. The recommendations of the Plowden Report, the James Report, the White Paper and the Green Paper, in an increasingly critical and evaluative climate of public opinion, have led to the growing acceptance of a professional model in which regular in-service involvement is accepted as normal.

But in many ways the debate has just begun, for our provision of in-service education is still very largely based on the model of initial teacher education. Students attend courses of varying length in teachers' centres or colleges or Universities, usually involving lectures or seminars, and often leading to certification of one kind or another. School-based work, involving action-research, requiring the participation and professional introspection of a whole school department or an entire staff, taking account of the views of pupils or parents, and (dare one suggest it) taking place regularly during the longer school holidays, is still rare. Secondly, the place in the

teacher education sequence at which shorter courses are more appropriate, or longer and more advanced work is necessary is still arbitrarily decided, for the most part. Thirdly, the role of teachers in contributing to the development of educational policy and the growth of educational theory through in-service work, is also important, the flow is not necessarily uni-directional.

Advanced Studies

The role of more advanced work in the continuing professional development of teachers continues to be a significant one, for this is one of the main traditional avenues by which educational personnel are prepared for posts of responsibility, specialist teaching roles, educational research, administration, and the staffing of teacher education itself. Secondly, in a period in which both the theory and the practice of education are undergoing criticism, re-interpretation and in some areas fundamental change, the most effective channels of dissemination are through advanced diploma and higher degree courses, and the recent proliferation of these courses reflects these developments, as well as the dynamics of the teacher education establishment itself in a period of diversification. Thirdly, there is perhaps something to be said for the view that whereas shorter courses may be an effective means of imparting information, it is in the longer and more probing interactions of advanced courses that attitudes and perspectives are probably more likely to be affected; and in the last analysis, it is the professional's capacity to assess and resolve practical issues in a rational and informed way which is one of the main objectives of continuing education.

With the approach of a graduate profession, higher degree courses have flourished, doubling over the past five years and now totalling over 130 in England and Wales. Advanced diplomas (now totalling over 210) have also virtually doubled since 1972, and have trebled in the past decade. A number of diplomas have been subsumed into other awards; but the great majority have survived, partly because the diploma often provides an avenue to continuing education where the entry to an in-service B.Ed. is re-

strictive, partly because it may offer a bridge to higher degree work for non-graduates, and partly because it is designed specifically as a post-experience qualification and usually offers a much wider range of specialisation than the in-service B.Ed. degree.

In London, a large number of diploma and higher degree courses are offered many of them at colleges of education, institutes of higher education and polytechnics, and all validated by the University or The Council for National Academic Awards (CNAA). At Goldsmiths' College, now the largest centre of advanced in-service education for teachers in the London region outside the University Institute of Education, some ten M.A. and diploma courses are available, all of them reflecting very closely the national priorities indicated in the 1977 'Green Paper'. University of London advanced diplomas are offered in multicultural education, counselling, early childhood education, the teaching of pre-school and primary mathematics, and the education of handicapped children, and new diplomas in urban education and in reading should begin in 1979. In addition, an advanced diploma in religious education, and the University's Diploma in Education which offers a range of specialisations and an avenue to higher degree work are also available.

Goldsmiths' at present offers M.A. courses in curriculum studies, in the sociology of education, and in language and literature in edu-

cation, and it is hoped to increase this range of work in the near future. Opportunities are also available for students to undertake research leading to the M.Phil. and Ph.D. degrees of the University of London. The total advanced studies programme has more than quadrupled over the past two years and is very much an enterprise rooted in the current preoccupation with the quality of teaching.

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CARNIVAL FRIEZES

Primary school teachers who teach about the Caribbean will be interested in a set of Carnival Friezes being prepared and published by the Ujamaa Centre in London. Details from Aileen McKenzie, 14 Brixton Road, London SW9.

ENVIRONMENT INFORMATION

'Ecopolitics: the new politics that is rapidly growing out of the worldwide ecological movement, based on the awareness of declining resources and the bankruptcy of technological materialism.' Details of conferences and a bulletin concerned with ecopolitics are available from Colin Fry, 27 Canadian Avenue, Gillingham, Kent.

'The CHILDREN'S WORLD'

A competition for schools is being organised by the department of Education in Developing Countries, at the London Institute of Education. Entries can include painting, drawing, modelling, photography etc. Details from R. Gardner, 20 Bedford Way, London WC1H 0AL.

'SMALL IS BEAUTIFUL'

An interesting and attractive leaflet on intermediate technology has been prepared by a group of teachers and others in Malvern. It accompanies a mobile exhibition of models and pictures, but is very readable on its own also. Single copies are available free of charge from Isla Williams, Burfields, The Crescent, Malvern WR13 6QN.

School Improvement Through Global Education: approaches and objectives

Jon Rye Kinghorn, Charles F. Kettering Foundation, United States

'Global education' is an American term equivalent in meaning to terms such as 'education for international understanding,' 'development education,' 'world studies' etc. Like them it refers to a dimension which is present, or which may be present, in every school subject — global education does not have its own special place on the school timetable. In this latter respect it is similar also to moral education, social education, political education, multi-cultural education, and so on.

How does a school set about permeating its whole curriculum with certain particular concerns — those of global education, or political education, or multi-cultural education, or whatever? The strategy worked out by the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities is described in this article.

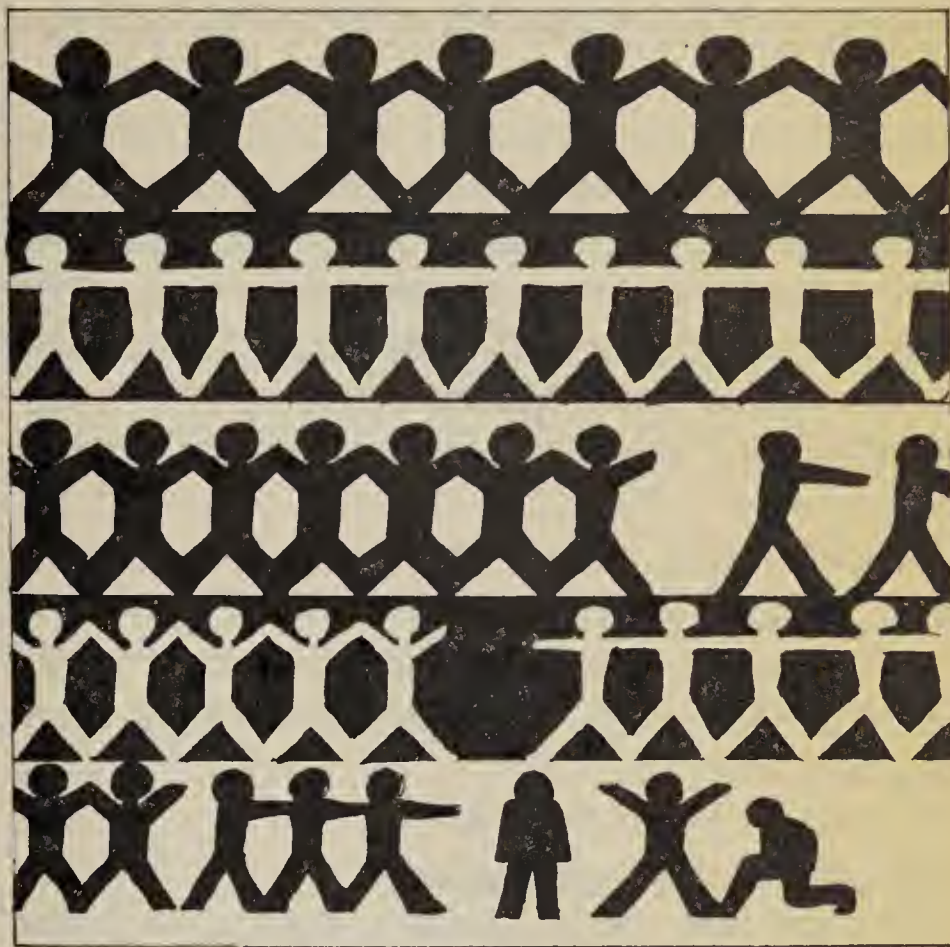
As indicated in the article's title, the emphasis in this strategy is on 'improvement' as distinct from, say, 'innovation'. It seeks to involve the whole staff of a school, and also key people outside the school, rather than just a section of the staff. It does this in various ways, but in particular through an intensive one-day or two-day in-service workshop.

A later article in this issue of *The New Era*, entitled 'How Does a Workshop Work?', describes an in-service occasion which took place in April 1978 in England, and which was based on the format outlined here by Jon Kinghorn.

Introduction

The United States imports almost half of its petroleum. Every third acre cultivated in this country is for export. Every sixth job depends on international trade. The world's fourth largest Spanish speaking population is in the United States.

It is also the case, however, that barely 5 per cent of the teachers preparing nationally for positions from kindergarten through twelfth grade levels have any exposure at all to international studies or training; that American students come out next to last on international surveys about international institutions and processes; and that only 3 per cent of all under-graduate students or less than 1 per cent of all college age people in the United States enroll in any courses dealing particularly with world affairs.(1)



There is an urgent need in the United States for more and better global education — that is, for our education system to include objectives such as the following:

- understanding that one can view the world as being composed of several distinct but interrelated systems — economic, political, cultural and ecological;
- understanding the many ways the United States and other nations of the world are linked interdependently;
- understanding that different lifestyles have different impacts on the earth;
- understanding that personal and collective decisions made by Americans have consequences for people elsewhere in the world;
- perceiving that the supply of many of the world's most critical natural resources is finite;
- reflecting on the possible consequences for oneself and others of different world views on issues such as unequal distribution of the world's wealth;

- developing an ability to engage in cross-societal and cross-cultural communications in respect to world problems;
- identifying emerging trends and alternative futures;
- identifying how individuals and groups can bring about change.

In October 1977 the North Central Association's Commission on Schools announced a joint project with the Charles F. Kettering Foundation: the creation of a program for school improvement through global education. The dual objectives of the program are: (1) school improvement through focused in-service training and (2) an increased awareness among participants of the global perspective essential to understanding today's world.

This article describes the assumptions about educational change on which the project is based, and the particular kind of in-service workshop for teachers which it includes.

Assumptions about change

The 'School Improvement through Global Education' program is based on the following assumptions about the nature of educational change:

1. Those who are going to implement change must have a part in designing the change. If one feels ownership for a program then it has a good chance of success. Therefore the design of the School Improvement through Global Education program will vary from school to school and from teacher to teacher.

2. The reason for a new program must be clearly understood by all parties. Much discussion is needed to clarify one's position and understand the position of others. It takes effort and study to understand how to continue to teach the existing curriculum and in addition to make a contribution to global education. The reason for any change must make sense and be clearly defensible by each person involved.

3. New programs must build on the past. Change is part of the process of evolution from what was to what will be. To change does not mean that what happened in the past was inadequate or wrong. Rather

change is the result of the process of learning and improving on what exists. New programs must interface with existing programs.

4. New programs should be designed for adaptation and continuous evolution. The objectives in this program are flexible. The responses or programs that come out of the objectives can be revised and modified to reflect the current needs of the students and staff.

5. New programs must involve the total staff. The responsibility for global education rests with all staff members in every discipline or position. A program must not impose upon people; everyone affected should have an opportunity to help decide if the program is for them.

6. New programs can best be implemented in schools at the individual building level. To succeed, a global education program requires a total staff involvement. The best efforts of individuals in the central office, one department, selected teachers, or active citizens are inadequate. Successful adoption of new programs in a school system is the result of an integrated commitment of the staff, students and community within one physical building.

7. Agreement on essential matters should permit wide variation on other points. Administrators should capitalize on differences rather than trying to get agreement in every respect. What's important is that staff members feel they are properly treated even though they may have different views about some things.

Process objectives

There is a need not only for objectives relating to what students are to learn. It is necessary also, in any program involving change and innovation, to set certain objectives relating to the process of change itself. In the 'School Improvement through Global Education' program there are seventeen such objectives, grouped into four main categories. The four main categories are: adoption and approval; school-wide commitments, responsibilities and relationships; curriculum and individual responsibilities; planning, evaluation and improvement. In further detail, the process objectives are as follows:

I Adoption and Approval: The adoption

and approval category includes three process objectives. First, the school district approves the school staff's decision to implement a program for global education.

Second, the school and school district agree that a standardized program of global education producing standardized effects is not expected. Third, the staff determines the global education program at each stage of its development.

These processes establish that both the central office and the building level staff support the program. Formal pronouncements alone can be useless, but by basing the program on the everyone's commitment there is enthusiasm and support.

The activities within this first category serve to set institutional direction and goals, to legitimate reallocation of resources, and to involve the school community in the program.

II School-wide Commitments, Responsibilities, and Relationships: The process objectives of this second category are to set up formal arrangements for a staff to carry out the program. Staff and student and community representatives take part in approving and adding to the global education objectives for their own school. Within the school they develop goals, both building-wide and for the individual teacher.

Although a steering committee of teachers helps to formulate school-wide policies and procedures, the responsibility for global education rests with all staff in every discipline.

The school finds ways to bring the community into the school and the school into the community as a laboratory for global education experience. A school may undertake these processes superficially, but making them work takes a substantial effort and commitment.

III Curriculum and Individual Responsibilities: The aim of the program is to so infuse the entire school community that all learning increases the students' global awareness. The students accept increasing responsibility to work individually, or with other students, staff members and their parents, to plan and evaluate their progress toward their objectives of global education.

As part of this category, four process objectives spell out the essential themes of the

program, the framework for global education. The four themes are:

- Valuing diversity;
- Developing effective working relationships with others;
- Understanding the world as an interdependent system;
- Understanding prevailing world conditions, the process of change, and emerging trends.

The frame of reference established by these four themes allows the participants to relate what they are learning to their own lives. By relating classroom content to the themes, teachers can help students see that content in a new, exciting and useful way.

Over a period of time, possibly several years, each teacher responds to the four themes, and students relate what they are learning to the themes. Global issues need not be introduced every day or with every topic, nor need the themes be connected artificially to the class materials. Teachers are asked only to make responses they feel are appropriate, professionally to judge how to relate their material to an increased global perspective, and to examine and perhaps to improve their present practices. The curriculum component represented by the four themes is not a prescription but rather a program focus for the staff to use for their benefit.

IV Planning, Evaluation, and Improvement: The school staff will be responsible for monitoring and evaluating the global education program and for improving it. They should continue to evaluate and respond to all aspects of the first three categories.

The school staff and teachers will develop inservice programs in the area of global education. Such continuous participation ensures the continued growth of each school's unique program for global education.

In-service workshop

A school staff embarking on school improvement through global education needs to participate, in the early parts of the change process, in a special workshop. We have developed the 'Consensus and Diversity Workshop in Global Education.' It contains six sessions, each of approximately one hour and forty-five minutes. It may be accom-

plished in a two-day period, or alternatively the schedule may be reduced to fit into an intensive one-day retreat. Alternatively again, it may stretch over several weeks or months. The goals of the workshop are shown in Table One.

TABLE ONE

'CONSENSUS & DIVERSITY: WORKSHOP GOALS'

1. Become better acquainted with each other and develop greater respect for one another.
 2. Establish open lines of communication and be willing to listen to other points of view and to consider alternative value systems.
 3. Become more sensitized to others and better prepared to help students and teachers know and accept differences of other students and teachers.
 4. Experience specific skills in small group dynamics including the complex processes involved in consensus forming.
 5. Examine and clarify one's own value structure in various areas connected with global education.
 6. Understand the value structure of other participants in various areas connected with global education.
 7. Increase the awareness level about global issues in the school and the community so that its members will better understand the complexity of global problems.
 8. Seek to understand the various academic approaches to complex global problems.
 9. Develop an awareness that global issues do impact the community and affect peoples' lives.
 10. Approve or reject a set of process objectives to serve as guidelines for responses that a school staff might want to make in the area of global concerns.
 11. Identify the steps involved in translating the process objectives into the life of the school.
 12. Establish a timeline and a plan for continued study and implementation.
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Workshop activities

The workshop activities deliberately focus on what is positive in nature: what is right, what is good, and the potential for positive change that exists in a community, a school, and in each individual. This positive approach is used for a specific reason. It provides a solid foundation for making progress in accomplishing tasks. Participants feel a sense of accomplishment. Everyone know how easy it is to spend hours dissecting what is wrong in any given setting without gaining any sense of what is right. Many staff meetings end in

bitterness and frustration because the focus is constantly on the areas of disagreement.

Participants in the 'Consensus and Diversity' workshop, however, learn procedures for focusing on areas of consensus. When these areas of consensus are established, it is much easier to move forward with positive and constructive change. The school staff that has experienced the workshop is more likely to find areas of agreement and to make decisions that have involved positive contributions from all its members. This approach has been shown to function effectively on even the touchiest problems.

If approved by the staff, the process objectives provide the starting point for whatever tasks lie ahead and become guidelines against which progress can be evaluated. It is with these goal statements that a group can begin to consciously plan for program activities.

Small Working Groups

In the workshop success pivots on the combinations of participants in the small working groups. Nearly all the activities will involve these subgroups, so careful planning in the preparatory stages is important.

Groups should be built with a wide representation in terms of age, sex, experience, disciplines, personalities, and philosophies. The number of people in the group is important and will greatly affect the quality of the dialogue. Six people is probably the best number, with over seven being too many and under five being too few for good discussion. The number six may seem a bit arbitrary, but our experience confirms the recommendation.

Group leaders

Each group will need a group leader who will encourage participants to talk about themselves — their values and their ideas — rather than speaking in general terms. This person should serve as a model for the group and the quality and depth of his/her remarks will set the tone for the group. The task of selecting people to fill the role of small group leaders is difficult, but important, and needs to be addressed ahead of the workshop when the small groups are being assigned.

When the individuals have been identified it is of course important to determine their willingness to play such a role. If possible, these individuals should have had some experience in directing group processes. They must be willing to work with the group and not anxious to get moving with the tasks at hand. The quality of the dialogue during the 'Consensus and Diversity' workshop is most important. It must be of substance and it cannot be dominated by any one individual, particularly the small group leader. The success of the total workshop will be greatly dependent upon the ability of the small group leader to gently, but consistently, keep the group on their task. This individual cannot be overtly directive, however, or the group will not function but rather will defer to their leader.

The small group leaders must understand their roles before the workshop. This may call for a pre-workshop meeting between them and the workshop leaders. Small

group leaders' responsibilities include:

- Studying each activity so they can clarify procedural points for other participants;
- Relating each activity to the workshop goals;
- Keeping the group on the task during the discussions;
- Facilitating the discussions to ensure that everyone is involved;
- Watching the time on each activity and stopping group discussions when appropriate;
- Directing the discussion so it stays on a positive note;
- Steering discussions away from sensitive issues which might bring embarrassment to some participants;
- Encouraging a nonthreatening, relaxed discussion atmosphere so participants do not feel defensive;
- Maintaining a policing function to avoid participants running off for phone calls

TABLE TWO
'PEACE BEGINS AT HOME'

Assume that two of your goals are: assisting students to have a stronger commitment for world peace than some adults have at present; reducing conflict between students and between students and teachers.

What can be done? Hand out the following list of sixteen possibilities and ask the group as a whole to decide on the eight most effective. The group should also mark those that in their view would have no impact or those that would actually be harmful or counter-productive.

Space is provided for listing their own items, giving consideration to the ideas and possible strategies for implementation. What barriers could be expected? Would the trade-offs be worth the goals of enhancing world peace and reducing conflict within the school? What other responses would be appropriate for encouraging world peace? Rather than just ranking ideas listed, the small groups should work toward developing their own responses. The group responses will be posted for the whole workshop to see.

1. More competitive sports and other competitive activities.
2. More adventurous activities (e.g. camping, hiking, sailing).
3. All staff make a commitment to never put down or be negative to a student.
4. History to concern itself more with great individuals of peace than heros of war.
5. Geography and history to be more on the topic of mankind rather than one's own country.

6. More teaching about causes of war and violence.
7. More emphasis on family activities within the school program.
8. Students at all academic levels required to participate in projects of caring and serving in the local community (nursing homes, invalids).
9. Cause students to know, understand, and communicate with other students in the school who have different value patterns and cultural differences.
10. More effort to help students understand the life style of people in other parts of the world. (Greater study of other religions, economic systems, cultural patterns, family patterns.)
11. More effort to recognize how our society might be viewed from other societies.
12. More effort to teach good listening skills.
13. Require more specific tasks of students with fewer options so they learn to follow rules and requirements.
14. Have the school remove corporal punishment and pledge itself to nonviolent solutions to local conflicts.
15. Encourage study of the lives and teachings of people like Gandhi, Plato, Socrates, Jesus, and St Augustine.
16. Have frequent speakers come to school to speak about global issues on war and peace, i.e. local congressman, army recruiter, minister.

and other unessential interruptions;
— Clarifying points made by participants.

Workshop design

The first two sessions are introductory, and contain four activities: Individual Time Line, Time Line for the Future, Attitudes We Value, Your Decision. The third and fourth are concerned with theory and principles — the four activities are Conceptual Framework for Global Education, Peace Begins At Home, Back to Basics and Definition of Global Education. The fifth session is entitled Sharing Information about Current Programs, and the sixth Where Do We Go From Here. There are full details about all these activities in a handbook for group leaders.

Table Two consists of an extract from the handbook for group leaders, and shows the instructions and material for the activity entitled Peace Begins At Home. Readers of **The New Era** who would like further informa-

tion about School Improvement Through Global Education, and about the 'Consensus and Diversity' workshop which it includes, should please write to: Institute for Development of Educational Activities, 5335 Far Hills Avenue, Dayton, Ohio 45429.

JON RYE KINGHORN

Jon Rye Kinghorn is a member of the International Affairs Program, Charles F. Kettering Foundation, Dayton, Ohio. He is the author or co-author of very many publications on educational change and individualised learning. The next article in this issue of **The New Era** — 'How Does a Workshop Work?' — describes an inservice event which took place earlier this year in England, and which was explicitly based on the principles previously worked out over the years by Jon Kinghorn and his colleagues in the United States.

Reference

1. These statistics are cited in *National Needs for International Education* by Robert E. Ward, The Center for Strategic and International Studies, Georgetown University, Washington D.C., 1977.
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UNDERSTANDING AND INVOLVEMENT

'Oxfam's Education Department is a professional unit within Oxfam which specialises in working with the formal education system in UK to help children and young people understand change and development in today's world, and become involved in these processes, in their own and in others' best interests.'

Three new packs have been published by Oxfam as an expression of this basic aim. They are likely to be very useful indeed with the age-ranges for which they are intended.

Use Your Local School, compiled by David Dunn, is for the 9-11 age-range, and is about education for self-reliance in Tanzanian primary schools. **On the Move** for 12-14 year olds and **Operation Friendship** for 14-16 year olds, both compiled by Pete Davies, are to do with Bolivian families moving from the Altiplano to the Amazonian jungle and with young people in Jamaica seeking employment.

Each pack contains a set of slides, two wallcharts, some clearly written case-studies for pupils which can readily be photocopied and duplicated, and some excellently detailed background notes. Further, each pack contains an extremely useful set of teaching suggestions. These are presented very clearly, and are obviously written by people very familiar with the daily reality of school classrooms. Further details are available from Oxfam Education Department, 274 Banbury Road, Oxford.

'WHOSE HARVEST?'

'There is a danger that harvest time in our largely urban society is translated into nostalgic experience reflecting a rural idyll of waving cornfields, happy harvesters and nineteenth century harvest suppers. The reality of yesteryear itself was very different from this romantic ideal: there was considerable suffering, malnutrition and premature death . . .' This is the start of a stimulating booklet written and compiled by Andrew Hutchinson, and published by Christian Aid. It is entitled **Whose Harvest?** and is intended in particular for use at secondary school assemblies. There are songs and readings, and many valuable points, simply but strikingly expressed, about food production in the modern world. The booklet is available free of charge, as are details of a fine poster about the coffee bean harvest in El Salvador, from Christian Aid Schools Department, PO Box 1, London SW9 8BH.

PEACE EDUCATION

A meeting on peace education is being held at Huy, Belgium, from 2-5 February 1979. It is being jointly sponsored by the World Council for Curriculum and Instruction, the International Peace Research Association, and the University of Peace. Further information is available from Manfred Peters, rue du Marche 35, B. 5200 Huy, Belgium.

How Does a Workshop Work?

some notes on pattern and process

Robin Richardson, World Studies Project, London

This article reports on a weekend workshop for teachers. It should ideally be read in conjunction with the previous article by Jon Kinghorn. For the workshop which it describes was consciously designed and run along the lines developed over the last few years by Jon Kinghorn and his colleagues in the United States.

The article admits to various problems and failures at the workshop. But overall the argument is that it had a pattern which would be well worth experimenting with further — particularly in school-based inservice courses. The pattern is perhaps relevant also, it is suggested, in the school classroom itself.

Introduction

'Forgive me,' he wrote. 'On two counts. One, that I have replied so late to your invitation to the weekend meeting at Birmingham, on "The School in a World of Change." That you can put down to bad manners. Two, that I'm going to decline your kind invite. That you can put down to disillusionment.'

Brian, who wrote this letter, is someone I know well. I have worked with him — and with a colleague of his, Paul — at his school. I have a great admiration for them both. They are very energetic, very thoughtful, very capable. Brian's letter, written to me in February 1978, continued:

'I agree with the whole ethos of the meeting at Birmingham and I'm sure it's just the pick-me-up I need. But at the moment I'm afraid I could not bear to hear new ideas of any import — the net result at the moment would be a feeling of guilt, incompetence, and relative deprivation. It's a long story, but I feel frustrated in the job and the only way I feel I'm going is backwards.

'I'm afraid Paul feels the same — perhaps we are our own worst enemies — and has asked me to convey his apologies for not wishing to attend.

'The doldrums! Feet in molasses! Even that article we meant to write for The New Era is shelved whilst our community studies course is watered down by the system.



'Please don't see this in any other way than a passing gloom — it's just a question of trying to work out what I've got to do — gird the old loins and not take on anything at the moment that comes under the category of effort. I'm sorry. Brian.'

This article is a description in some detail of the weekend meeting at Birmingham which Brian missed. When he reads it, Brian may reckon that his decision not to come has been vindicated. And perhaps many other readers will similarly reckon that the weekend wouldn't have been worth Brian's time and effort.

So why write the article? Why read it? In the writing of it I have three main purposes in mind. First, the meeting was — more precisely, it seemed — sufficiently successful to be worth reporting on. Not all teachers feel, all the time, as Brian was feeling when he wrote that letter. It is reasonable to suppose that many teachers — including perhaps Brian when the passing gloom has passed — would benefit from the type of weekend des-

cribed in this article.

Second, this article is not just the description of a single weekend. It is also a report on a particular style and type of in-service occasion for teachers. What we did at that weekend at Birmingham could readily be adapted to other situations. For example, and particularly, the style could be used in a one-day in-service conference in an individual school, when the whole staff meets to review its policy and practice on such and such a topic affecting the whole curriculum — political education, say, or education for a multi-cultural society. Brian might well find a particular style of one-day conference to be very valuable — amongst other things he would probably find that he has more sympathy and respect and support from his colleagues, and more freedom to propose and create change, than he thought.

Third, the style which we adopted at Birmingham is almost certainly usable in school classrooms with pupils as well as in in-service courses for teachers. This article can be read as a general discussion of teaching methods, not just as the description of a specific weekend, and not just as an outline of a particular style of in-service occasion.

Background

Before the article gets under way there is a need for a few factual details about who was involved in it, and about what the background to it was.

The story goes back to 1975, when the World Studies Project arranged a weekend conference at the University of Keele, entitled 'Only One Earth; what and how should we be teaching?' There were a number of participants invited from outside Britain at that conference, one of whom was William Shaw, from the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, based in Dayton, Ohio. (1) In the following year, 1976, the Foundation invited me to pay a return visit. The occasion was a five-day workshop at a junior high school near Dayton.

The format of the Dayton workshop was based on principles worked out over the last few years by the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities (IDEA), which is sponsored by the Kettering Foun-

dation. The workshop was directed by William Shaw and Jon Kinghorn, who subsequently compiled and published a booklet about it: **Handbook for Global Education: a working manual.** (2)

IDEA's publications in general, and the handbook by Kinghorn and Shaw in particular, are distinctively American in their style and flavour. They could not be readily used, without various modifications, in another culture. But the principles and ideas beneath their surface are, I think, extremely interesting, and entirely relevant in Britain (and probably many other countries) as well as the United States. These principles and ideas were introduced to about thirty British people, all of them professionally involved in in-service education, at a conference in January 1978, at Charney Manor in Oxfordshire. Taking part in that conference were the six people who subsequently designed and ran the weekend at Birmingham in April. They represented five separate organisations or projects: the Centre for Social Education, Christian Aid Schools Department, the Ely Project on Materials for World Studies, Oxfam Education Department, and the World Studies Project. (3)

Participants and Aims

36 people took part in the Birmingham weekend. Virtually all were teachers in secondary schools, and virtually all were concerned with the humanities/social studies area of the school curriculum. Most were heads of department. Thanks to a grant which the World Studies Project had received from Unesco, accommodation and meals were provided free of charge. People came by personal invitation (Brian, it will be recalled, was replying to such an invitation), but not all were known personally to the organisers.

The weekend's title was 'The School in a World of Change', and its preliminary statement of aims said that it would be an opportunity for teachers already actively involved in curriculum change in the general fields of community studies, development education, international education, multicultural education, social education, world studies etc: — to exchange views and information about their current and recent work;

- to consider ways in which their work can be consolidated and disseminated — for example, through school-based in-service courses, courses in teachers' centres, working parties, production of materials and publications of various kinds;
- to consider ways in which they might remain in contact with each other, and perhaps collaborate with each other, in the future.

Overall reactions

In due course this article will describe in detail some of the specific things we did, and people's reactions to them. But first, to give an overall sense of how people felt about the weekend, here are some quotations from letters which were written afterwards, and from diaries which most participants kept whilst the weekend was in progress:

'It has been a very valuable, stimulating and informative weekend for me. I have learnt a great deal on the practical level, in particu-

lar about subject matter and resources, and also I have discovered that my problems and uncertainties are similar to those of others — this is very re-assuring. It has been good, too, to meet others in the same field, and to be reminded that intelligent, enthusiastic and committed teachers do exist throughout the country.'

'It was a very unusual experience for me and, because of this, it has given me a fresh outlook and a new approach, which I feel will benefit the pupils of my school and which, I hope, I will be able to transmit to other members of staff, so that the whole school community will have a fresh outlook and a new approach to learning and teaching about the world in which we live.'

'I'm writing on behalf of both of us to convey our appreciation and admiration, for the way in which you had created a conference structure in which people were very much at ease, and were stimulated to think and participate. It was one of the most valuable

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King's College, London, Friday December 15

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Discussion Papers by Dr James Henderson, Robin Hodgkin,
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Symposium conducted by Keith Thompson (North Staffs Polytechnic)

Details from the Hon. Secretary, Mr James Scotland, Principal,
Aberdeen College of Education, Hilton Place, Aberdeen, AB9 1FA

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is not a feeling that it is "someone else's conference" — responsibility for its outcome slowly but surely moves squarely into the laps of the participants.'

Positive comments along lines such as these were not, of course, the only kinds of comment. Here are some examples of criticisms which people made of the weekend as a whole, and suggestions they made for improvement:

'I felt that the political implications and ramifications of world studies were insufficiently considered in plenary session. Most of the school curriculum is constructed to bolster the status quo, and to provide fodder for a consumer society. World studies, if a truly global approach is adopted, is, by dint of its nature, radical and change-oriented. The implications need very serious consideration at a philosophical and practical level.'

'There was an air of "niceness" around, that was probably a two-edged sword. On the one hand it made people comfortable but on the other it failed to provide challenges to the cocoons they had woven round themselves.'

'I would appreciate less pressure, more time to reflect, explore, react to the various activities in which we have engaged. There was an immense variety of experiences — just more time was needed for fuller absorption.'

'I think physical exercise/outdoor action plus possibly painting/creativity needs building in. The mental side was varied and challenging, but we all have bodies — and mine is reacting against so much sitting down. Some sort of lighthearted sport on the Saturday evening would have been a great advantage, and would have helped to activate the brain.'

Overall pattern

In its overall design the weekend had four main phases. For the sake of clarity, and in acknowledgement to the American organisation from which the weekend's format was derived, the four phases can be given titles whose initial letter form a simple acronym: IDEA. The four phases are as follows:

conferences which I have ever attended.'

'Just to say thank you for a good experience at Birmingham — I have just attended another conference, and the antiquated nature of the organisation brought your conference vividly to mind. The day of the long lecture and the huge groups discussing nothing in particular has gone for ever — only some people don't seem to realise this. The long-term effect which the Birmingham course has had on us here is most definitely to re-examine our basic aims and objectives. I felt at the time of doing the 20 Questions game that it was all too cerebral and unrelated to practicalities, but now I notice that there has been a definite result. Another definite gain has been in approach to method. . . . Quite definitely the long-term effect of the conference has been very good.'

'General feeling generated seems to be one of accumulating strength and possibilities. Maybe this is the most important thing of all — if people wake up on Monday morning with the sense of being supported and the sense that there is more they can do in the future. There is a feeling not just of involvement (which I'm sure you can find in many conferences) but of commitment — the feeling that we are all in something together and would be letting each other down if we gave up. The conference format has a lot to do with this because there

- 1) I: Introduction
- 2) D: Description of case-studies
- 3) E: Expression of general principles
- 4) A: Action proposals

Introductory phase

The introductory phase took up just over a quarter of the total time available. It consisted of a series of exercises and games in small groups. There were eight of these altogether. The first involved each person speaking for five minutes to one other person, without interruption, on the subject of 'who I am and what I'm hoping to get from this weekend.' Thus within ten minutes or so of the weekend starting everyone had had a chance to say how they hoped it would shape out; everyone knew one other person's expectations and wishes; everyone had received the undivided attention of one other person; and everyone had been required to give their undivided attention to one other person. A start such as this vividly symbolises a crucial point: the resources for learning at the workshop are the participants themselves, not expert lecturers. The participants are, yes, going to be stimulated and challenged during the weekend — but by each other, not by 'inputs' from the organisers.

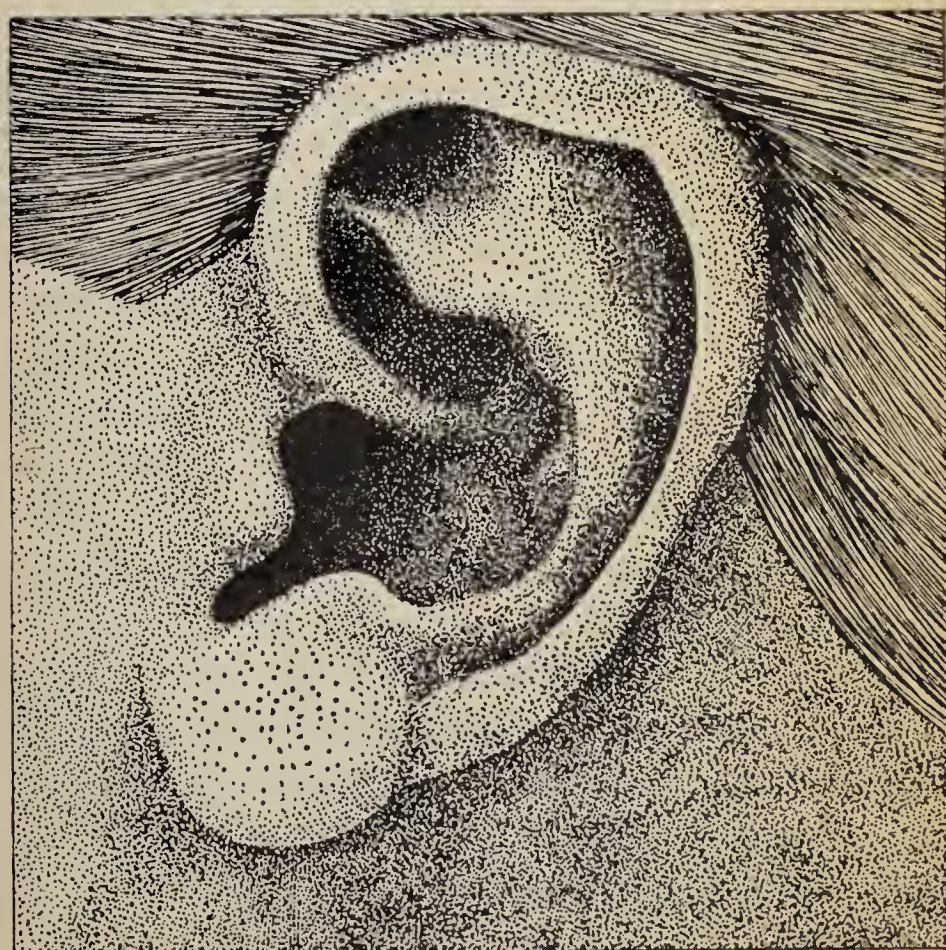
The second activity grew out of the first. Each individual introduced their partner to four other people, and outlined what their partner was hoping to get from the weekend. From these introductions a series of wall charts were produced. Each was entitled 'We are hoping . . .', and each was stuck up on the walls as a reminder and checklist for the rest of the weekend.

Third, people again worked for a while in pairs. Each pair was given nine slips of paper on which were written nine short stories about things which could have happened to someone at the conference during the days immediately preceding it. The task was to rank these nine stories in the order in which they seemed to be describing really important problems. After each pair had ranked the stories, there was discussion in small groups of the issues which they raised, and the practical action which could be taken in the situations which they described. Some of the stories are reproduced here on page 232.

There were four main purposes behind this activity: to recall and affirm the real world from which participants had come, with its daily hassles and uncertainties; to suggest that participants could reasonably expect to acquire at the weekend some insights and skills for dealing with (though not, of course, necessarily solving) the problems of everyday teaching; to sketch the overall subject-matter of the weekend; and, very importantly, to give participants a chance to express without anxiety a variety of political and educational views.

This last point cannot be emphasised too strongly. At a weekend such as this there will be, both within individuals as well as between them, tensions between conservative, liberal and socialist political ideologies, and tensions between classicist, progressivist and radical views of education. Few if any participants want heated argument, with the attendant risk of losing potential friends and allies, on the very first evening of a weekend conference. But it is nevertheless vital that the underlying tensions should be acknowledged. This activity with nine short stories is an unthreatening way of symbolising such tensions.

Next, there were three activities to do with discussion skills. The first of these three activities involved what Americans call brainstorming: the collaborative creation of lists without discussion and without, therefore, negative comments or judgements. The lists



in this instance were of people, famous or otherwise, who might be invited to visit one's classroom; and of the criteria which one would adopt when selecting amongst them. The other two activities were simple role-playing games. They focused on, respectively, constructive and destructive ways of participating in small group discussion.

The seventh activity was entitled Time Line. Each participant drew a chart, using both words and pictures, to show significant events over the years in their professional (and, if they wished, in their personal) life. In particular they were asked to include events which were relevant to the subject-matter of the weekend. The charts were explained and discussed in small groups, and were put up on the walls for display.

The eighth and final activity in the introductory phase was entitled Twenty Questions. People worked for this in pairs, and each pair had twenty slips of paper. On each slip there was a question about the aims and objectives of education. The task was to arrange the twenty questions in a large flow chart, with arrows, symbols, boxes, keywords etc. After the charts had been created and explained, the key questions in them were applied to a collection of school textbooks. In due course, so the intention was, these key questions would be applied also to a series of case-study descriptions of courses and syllabuses.

Reactions to introductory phase

Reactions to the introductory phase were mixed. There was probably no single participant who enjoyed all eight of the introductory activities, and the diaries which people kept show that some participants like virtually none of them. The opening introductions in pairs, the discussions of short stories and the Twenty Questions exercise were the three which were valued most. Here are some positive statements about aspects of the introductory phase:

'I liked the way the conference started with no formal big group meeting, a very different approach for me, but certainly an excellent way of helping people who are strangers feel at home, at ease and more confident.'

'The print out of people's lives was very helpful in that it showed many to be like myself. I'm looking forward to the rest of the weekend.'

'A good mixture of group dynamics, role play and experiential activities, based upon the stated purposes of the conference. Within one evening people were as relaxed with each other as only occasionally occurs by the end of other conferences.'

'It has been fun . . . an artificial goal is set around which "play-talk" can revolve. This probing gives a secure nest from which to face the other threatening individuals on the conference, and as long as no strong antipathies are set up within any of the groups, should make the social side of the weekend a great success.'

'The life-line — I haven't been at a conference where people were asked to reveal themselves and their motivation so early in the proceedings. I found it valuable to question myself. I thought the exercise was well thought out because no one would have to "expose their soul". You left us great freedom to do what we wanted — a good technique.'

'The role play — lovely — provides a much needed outlet for feelings, need to make noise, laugh etc. Breaks constraints of politeness and stiffness.'

'Putting aims into a pattern. Stimulating, a good reminder of theory behind education, which one loses while teaching. Reminded me of what I think I should be doing and probably fall down on in practice.'

But not everyone, by any means, enjoyed the introductory phase. In particular the role-playing games were seen as rather pointless by a number of participants, and the timeline exercise was seen as an intrusion on personal privacy. Here are some comments which make these points:

'After arriving late following a tedious drive I was frankly not in the mood for the games of the first evening. My feeling was that most of the games were too constrained — there was no allowance for anarchy.'

'Ice-breaking sessions: nice in theory but too abstract in content, because too gamesy and strained in our group.'

'Ill at ease to begin with. Too many exer-

cises in too short a time with, often, no clear objectives. Were they aimed at breaking the ice, or to make us more aware of skills required for the weekend?’

‘The intense organisation and general atmosphere made me feel enclosed and uneasy. . . . The group work made me feel I was under a microscope.’

‘Introductory phase good and essential but would help to leave more flexibility, so that discussion could take place if group wants it. E.g. when ranking “problem stories” — a key disagreement raised its head and could have been important for the group to articulate and argue about — but the watch cut us off — need to catch polarisation points when you can.’

The introductory phase drew to a close with each small group agreeing on some questions to which they would seek the answers when, during the rest of the day, they were examining case-study descriptions of courses and syllabuse. Or rather, this is what was supposed to happen. In practice there was not sufficient time allocated for people to make the questions a matter of explicit agreement.

Second phase: case studies

The case-studies phase of the weekend, which lasted from mid-morning on the Saturday until late afternoon, had two parts. In the first part every individual at the conference gave a brief talk about his or her work to six or seven other people. These talks were illustrated with visual aids — posters and charts on which people showed how their courses were organised, and what their main problems were. ‘It is good,’ wrote someone in their diary, ‘that everyone gets a formal chance to participate by giving a presentation.’ But the more typical comment in the diaries was that people felt frustrated by the brevity of the talks, and by the insufficient time for discussion.

The second part of the case-studies phase was more leisurely, and by and large much more valuable. The format was as follows. We were in smallish groups, and in each group two conference members gave 5-minute talks about their work. Then they remained silent whilst the rest of the group commented

on what they had said, and drew up an agenda of points which they wished to discuss with them. This lasted about 20 minutes. There was then time for a lengthy discussion — well over an hour — with the two speakers. During this discussion the speakers expanded considerably on what they had said earlier, and gave quite a lot of factual information.

Articles relating to three of the case-studies were subsequently published in **The New Era**, in July 1978. There are some references to these, as also to others, in the comments which follow:

‘I found David Selby’s new course on The Global Village interesting . . . a well thought out range of activities aimed at creating involvement and participation. I like this stress upon the actual doing of something, to help students realise that individuals can contribute towards solutions of problems.’

‘Superb discussion thanks to suggested format. All seem to agree.’

‘We had a most inspiring interview with Hugh and Barbara. . . .’

‘I felt the afternoon was very well structured to be participatory, open and efficient.’

‘The highlight to date. Very interesting and useful to find out what other people are doing. Particularly interesting to hear about problems of teaching in a mixed ability situation.’

‘Case-studies — fascinating and relevant to my concerns — at conferences usually the people are too diverse and many are remote from teaching on the ground.’

‘. . . In-depth studies and a real discussion of the nitty gritty. Here fundamental issues were raised and more awkward and controversial ideas expressed. We got a little nearer the bone. I really appreciated the organisation of the session, and thought it a valuable teaching method which I will put into practice.’

Third phase: general principles

The third phase of the weekend, entitled ‘Expression of General Principles’, was supposed to grow naturally out of the case-studies. The idea was that we would now try to make

generalisations which would act as guidelines when we were considering the future. The phase might alternatively have been entitled 'theorising' or 'reflection'. Already in the weekend, of course, there had been plenty of discussion of theory — but only incidentally, so to speak, as part of an introductory ice-breaking game, or during the examination of a case-study. But now, so the intention was, we were consciously and deliberately organising our thoughts into theoretical statements.

It didn't quite work out like that, however, in each of the groups formed for this purpose on the Sunday morning. But all the groups, judging from the diaries, went well. One of them produced a list of guidelines on 'The Teacher and Social Change' — various do's and don't's when handling controversial issues in the classroom. Another produced a list of guidelines on teaching the 11-13 age-range. A third produced a statement on teaching A level economics. A fourth

group discussed teaching methods in general, and games and simulations in particular — the diaries show that people in this group found it particularly valuable, but no overall written statement was produced by it.

It is almost certainly the discussion which goes into producing a written statement, rather than the written statement itself, which is valuable at a short conference. For this reason the statements themselves will not be quoted here. Instead, here are some extracts from the diaries, to show the kind of benefit which people felt they gained from this phase of the weekend:

'Excellent. The time passed much too quickly. We were doing something, we were thinking, all deeply involved. I found it very stimulating. We learned from each other, we helped each other, and this will be an on-going thing, which should benefit our pupils, have an effect on the community and stretch out to the wider world.'

'The group discussion on social change

PROBLEMS WHICH ARISE

The weekend at Birmingham, described in this article 'How Does a Workshop Work?', began with discussion of nine short stories. Readers of *The New Era* may like to see the following examples, and to wonder what they themselves would do or say in the situations described.

'My father'

I happened to meet and talk with Jennie later in the day, after the class discussion on world poverty. 'Something I didn't like to mention at the time,' she said, 'was the theory about poverty my father has.' — 'Yes?' — 'My father reckons poverty is due to coloured people not being as intelligent as us, and because they don't work as hard. I think he could be right, my father, don't you?'

'What's the use of it?'

I was describing our World Studies course at a parents' meeting. 'But what's the use of it?' asked someone. 'What are our children going to learn that will help them to get — and keep — decent jobs? It's not even as though the course will be like crafts or sports — it's as irrelevant for their leisure as it is for their work.'

'Your view of change'

The hitchhiker I picked up was a Black South African. I mentioned I was teaching a course about his country. 'Do you include', he asked, 'the role of Western capital?' — 'Yes, I do try to.' — 'What's your view of social and economic change?' he asked. 'I mean, not

just change in South Africa, but change in your own country too. Is your course contributing to real change, and if so how?'

'Extremist views and immature minds'

The lecturer at the conference I went to said that we should introduce pupils to both far-Right and far-Left political views. I duplicated various things by the Klu Klux Klan and by the Baader-Meinhof group, and handed them out in class. A parent complained to the local newspaper. 'There is no possible justification,' said the editorial, 'for presenting extremist views to immature minds.'

'Themselves as prisoners'

After some lessons on human rights I asked the class to draw some posters. Quite a few of the efforts showed the school itself as a concentration camp — the teachers as warders, themselves as prisoners, and with barbed wire, observation towers, torture cells etc. 'But you don't really see school like that', I said. 'Of course we do,' said Mary. 'And you do, don't you?'

'Immense amount of work'

Sue, my daughter, wanted me to take her swimming — 'any evening this week,' she said. I said I couldn't. I had a series of meetings after school in connection with the 'World Society' course we're introducing, and an immense amount of work getting worksheets and resources together. 'Sometimes,' Sue said, 'I think you care more about your work than you do about your own family.'

was demanding but very worthwhile in that it helped to clarify my concerns, and outline concrete strategies for moving forward.'

'I have an overall feeling that the discussions will have a long term effect on my thinking.'

'The Sunday morning session was extremely interesting, and left me with the feeling that some real contact had been made, and some extension of my understanding had occurred.'

'A lot of useful and relevant discussion focused concretely on specific interests. Met interesting people/swapped addresses. But why couldn't this happen earlier? There was too much to talk about in too little time.'

Fourth phase: action proposals

The fourth and final phase was fairly brief. Each individual wrote down, and read out at a plenary meeting, some of the things which they hoped to do within the next few days as a result of the conference. The Chinese proverb was invoked of the long journey which starts with a short step — what short steps would we be taking? And what help and encouragement could we get from other people at the conference? What support could we in our turn give to others?

All sorts of resolutions were made, including the following:

- 'Organise myself to discuss new ideas and materials with my colleagues'
- 'Arrange a staff day or evening using the methods of this weekend'
- 'Ask myself questions about the way I work in the classroom'
- 'Will re-think my 3rd year course'
- 'Write and send out a letter inviting participation in a workshop in the autumn similar to this. And find a co-leader'
- 'Try to focus colleagues on the need for a change in emphasis towards greater pupil involvement in action and experiential work'
- 'Write up notes and ideas from the course to keep as a constant reminder'
- 'Try to set up a small resources and methods group of Leicestershire teachers to develop the kinds of learning strate-

gies talked about this weekend.'

In a letter written to the organisers about a fortnight later someone wrote: 'I enjoyed the finale — saying what I might do — only one problem — I haven't done it.' Probably quite a few others could have said the same. But to balance that point here is an extract from a letter from someone else:

'We have followed up the conference in a way which I had not envisaged at the final session: namely trying to persuade our headmaster to adopt more informal methods at a staff conference for curriculum review. I'm not sure how far we shall get, but he has read all our conference papers far more carefully than I had expected!'

On that point this report draws to a close. One possible outcome of the weekend at Birmingham will be a series of courses and conferences in individual schools. The original American format, pioneered by IDEA, was developed for precisely that context — the in-service day, or days, in an individual school.

There is still a need, even when participants are colleagues from the same school, for an in-service workshop to include a fairly lengthy introductory phase — for there to be a certain amount of ice-breaking, skirmishing, agenda-building, getting a sense of the general picture before dealing with specifics. But when participants are colleagues, all em-



played at the same school, the later phases of a workshop run on the pattern described in this article take on an additional dimension. For the general principles formulated in the third phase can become actual school policy. And the proposals for action made in the fourth phase can be realistically debated and in due course put into practice. Certainly there seems to be great promise in the possibility of school-based courses and conferences using the kind of style outlined in this

report.

Concluding note

What of Brian, with whom this article began? Is it as well that he didn't come to the conference? No-one can know for sure. It seems important that the article should close as it started: by recalling the difficulties, the often insoluble difficulties, of teaching, and on a note of uncertainty.

ROBIN RICHARDSON

Robin Richardson is director of the World Studies Project, which was one of the five organisations sponsoring the conference described in this article. There will be further similar conferences in 1979, and a handbook describing the exercises and activities used in them is to be published. Further details of these are available from Robin Richardson: World Studies Project, 24 Palace Chambers, Bridge Street, London SW1A 2JT.

References

1. William Shaw subsequently wrote an evaluative report on the conference, and this was published as an article, "'World Studies is a Good Thing': a weekend conference for teachers,' *The New Era* Vol. 56 No. 9, December 1975, 222-227.
2. This book, and other materials produced over the

years by IDEA, can be obtained from the Charles F. Kettering Foundation, 5335 Far Hills Avenue, Dayton, Ohio, 45429.

3. The individuals who designed and ran the Birmingham conference were: Margot Brown (Oxfam), Marion Flood (Centre for Social Education), Judith Holland and Andrew Hutchinson (Christian Aid), Robin Richardson (World Studies Project), and Hugh Starkey (Ely Project on Materials for World Studies). The meeting at Charney Manor, from which the Birmingham meeting was derived, had been designed and run by Martin Davies (Kingston Teachers Centre), Marion Flood, Colin Harris (Hertfordshire College), Andrew Hutchinson and Robin Richardson. Jon Kinghorn from IDEA and Gerald Marker from Indiana University were present as participant observers.
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GROWING NETWORK

The 'Turning Point' network is concerned with topics such as environment, sex equality, third world, peace and disarmament, community politics, appropriate technology, alternative medicine. It issues a very interesting and valuable newsletter, and arranges various conferences (for example, 'The Psychology of Social Change', Conway Hall London, 25 November 1978) and working parties. Its committee includes Peter Cadogan, Colin Hutchinson, James Robertson and Alison Pritchard, from whom further details are available at 7 St Ann's Villas, London W11 4RU.

MINORITY RIGHTS

The most recent report from the Minority Rights Group concerns the Hungarians of Rumania. It is by George Schopflin, and is available for 75p from 36 Craven St, London WC2 5NG.

Forthcoming reports will be on South Africa's Coloured People, The Western Sahara, The Social Psychology of Minorities, and Women in Asia. A newsletter about MRG's work is available free of charge.

ETHNOCENTRISM IN TEXTBOOKS

'Every textbook that deals with the third world or with minority groups embodies a set of attitudes and assumptions, whether conscious or unconscious, explicit or implicit, about its subject matter. Many of these attitudes are the legacies of colonialism . . .' A research project based on this viewpoint has been set up by the Minority Rights Group, with assistance from the Ministry of Overseas Development. It started in September 1978, and is being directed by David Hicks, from whom further details are available at 2 Tarn Cottages, Whitemoss, Grasmere, Cumbria LA22 9SF.

SIXTHFORM CONFERENCE

The annual CEWC conference in January 1979 will be entitled 'A World of our Making', and speakers are likely to include Edward Heath, Shirdath Ramphal, Robert Rhodes-James and Ronald Higgins. Further details are available from Margaret Quass, 43 Russell Square, London WC1B 5DA.

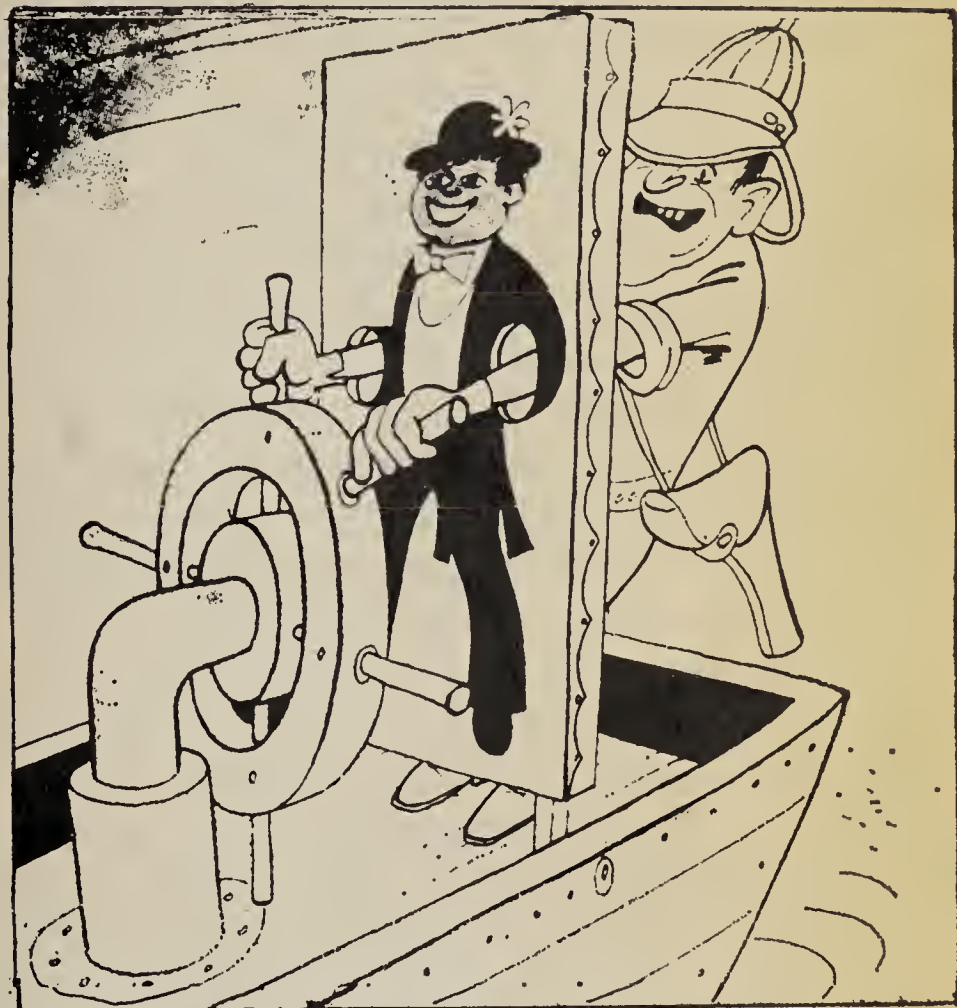
Education for International Understanding: background and progress of the Jordanhill Project

O. J. Dunlop, Jordanhill College, Glasgow

This article describes a project in Scotland which was set up in autumn 1977. The general subject-matter of the article — education for international understanding — links it to the two articles which have preceded it.

In addition, this article is linked to the two preceding ones by being a case-study in in-service education. The Jordanhill Project is similar to the work outlined in the previous articles by being concerned — to recall phrases from the introductory article by Maurice Craft — with 'action-research, the development of educational policy and the growth of educational theory;' and by seeking to create, in its director's own words, 'a partnership sharing common goals, and based upon mutual respect, within which specific responsibilities are allocated by common consent.'

The illustration on this page is from material developed by the Jordanhill Project. It shows a Russian cartoon about 'self-government' in Transkei. The illustration on page 237 shows some experimental material commissioned by the Jordanhill Project on terrorism.



Introduction

July 1978, to those concerned about the furtherance of education for international understanding and development education, was a month to which much significance can be attached. During the latter part of July 1978, two government ministers announced their intention to give considerable support to these areas of education.

On July 17 at a meeting in the House of Commons arranged by the Council for Education in World Citizenship (CEWC), the Rt. Hon. Mrs Shirley Williams MP announced that the Department of Education and Science was to provide funds to launch a standing conference on education for international understanding; the grant will be phased over two years and will enable meetings of working groups concerned with the primary, secondary and tertiary sectors of education to take place. Later in the same month, the Rt. Hon. Mrs Judith Hart MP, Minister for Overseas Development, accepted the report of her Advisory Committee on Development

Education at the ODM(1) that her Ministry should finance a greatly expanded programme of development education in the United Kingdom during the period 1979-84.

The Jordanhill Project was represented at the first of these two noteworthy events of July and is associated with the second (since Jordanhill College of Education is already receiving financial support from the Development Education Fund at the ODM in connection with the Project). It is difficult not to accept the impression that what has been simmering gently — and somewhat inconspicuously — in the education for international understanding pot since the publication of the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation(2) is about to be brought to the boil.

Background to the Jordanhill Project

Copies of the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation on Education for International Under-

standing were sent by the Scottish Education Department (SED) together with SED circular 962 in September of 1976 to official correspondents of colleges of education and other bodies in Scotland. The SED circular, like its DES counterpart,(3) invited a response in terms of measures taken to implement the Recommendation.

Subsequently, in April 1977, Jordanhill College of Education with the assured support of the Department of Education of Strathclyde Regional Council had, in response, put proposals to fund a major research and educational development project to the Advisory Committee on Development Education (ACDE) at the Ministry of Overseas Development. Almost simultaneously, and as an important preliminary step, Jordanhill College applied to the United Kingdom National Commission for UNESCO at the ODM to become an institution linked to the UNESCO Associated Schools Project (ASPRO) which is a world wide network of schools and colleges concerned with the promotion of education for international understanding. By the summer of 1977 Jordanhill became the first Scottish College of Education to be a member institution of the ASPRO network; by the early autumn the ACDE gave approval to the allocation of financial resources to enable Jordanhill to initiate an in-service research project. The project's purpose and design (Table 1), relate closely to the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation and to its implementation and is due to run until 1980.

The Project Proposals

The intention of the Project within the field of in-service activity is to produce, to compile and to pilot classroom materials which, once they have been validated, will become available to secondary schools throughout the United Kingdom. Themes which are being tackled by a thirty-strong team of teachers and College staff include 'The Emergent Nation', 'Human Rights', 'The Development Process', 'Interdependence', 'Conflict and Co-operation' and 'Choices for the Future'.

Nine secondary schools in Strathclyde Region where that uniquely Scottish subject, Modern Studies, is established were invited to take part in the venture. It is already clear,

TABLE ONE: THE JORDANHILL PROJECT IN INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING

OVERALL AIMS

By means of in-service activity in selected secondary schools in Strathclyde Region to establish a network of institutions intent upon the implementation of a substantial part of the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation 'Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms'.

THE PROJECT PROGRAMME

STAGE 1. The participation of 9 secondary schools in the Project will allow three types of in-service development:-

- (i) an aspect of International Understanding as part of a SCE 'O' grade course in Modern Studies which will be subject to school-assessment;
- (ii) approaches to International Understanding via Modern Studies and their application in junior mixed-ability classes or, perhaps, in the context of special education;
- (iii) the construction of inter-disciplinary courses on themes appropriate to International Understanding. Here the core subject would again be Modern Studies but it is possible to envisage the active participation of teachers of English and the Sciences.

STAGE 2. The organisation of in-service working groups of practising teachers, appropriate College staff and education officers from bodies concerned with Development Education to prepare and validate packaged teaching materials.

STAGE 3. To initiate courses and make contact with additional schools and groups of teachers with a view to the dissemination of validated teaching materials and the generation of enthusiasm for Education for International Understanding.

STAGE 4. To harness audio-visual media in order to promote development education in schools and elsewhere. In particular, on a College basis, to produce CCTV programmes which will extend effective Development Education throughout the secondary curriculum in Scotland, as part of the UNESCO Associated Schools Project.

DURATION AND THE PROPOSED STARTING DATE

Three academic sessions, commencing 1 September 1977.

however, that due to an increase in the workload on teachers some additional schools will require to be added to help realise the Project's aims. The number, nine, was and is not particularly significant although due consideration was given to the size and character of schools and also to their location within the Educational Divisions of Strathclyde in order to ensure a balanced representation. Thus at one extreme there is a small school in the Ibrox district of Glasgow which teaches phy-

sically handicapped and partially sighted children; at another extreme is a Glasgow comprehensive school with over 2,000 pupils. Oban High School is an instance of a truly comprehensive school with possibly the largest territorial catchment in Scotland; it accommodates boarders who come from Inner Hebridean islands such as Mull, Tiree and Colonsay.

Due to the fact that the Director of Education of Strathclyde had responded most positively to a request from the college principal to enlist the active support of the region in the Project, the administration of the JPIU, especially in its formative period, has proved to be fairly straightforward. Informal contacts with the principal teachers of Modern Studies in the nine schools likely to be invited produced an enthusiastic assurance of their willingness to participate and formal approaches which went subsequently to the

Headteachers gave confirmation of this interest. It should be stressed that the relationship which Jordanhill has with schools in its catchment area is a very good one. This is particularly the case in terms of the harmony which obtains between subject departments and those schools in the Strathclyde Region in which student teachers are placed for classroom experience during their post graduate year at Jordanhill.

Moreover, in a tight-knit community such as Glasgow, college staff and teachers — most of whom received their year of post-graduate professional training at Jordanhill — know one another very well and may often meet socially as well as professionally. What was being designed as an organisational structure was not therefore an in-service course per se, nor another working party (of which there have been many in the past) but a partnership sharing common goals and

HIJACK!

LUFTHANSA FLIGHT 181 WAITS TO TAKE OFF FROM PALMA, MAJORCA WITH 84 PEOPLE ABOARD BOUND FOR FRANKFURT, WHEN...



... 2 MEN AND 2 WOMEN ARRIVE LATE AND ARE RUSHED THROUGH CUSTOMS.

SUDDENLY...



... AT LUNCHTIME OVER THE ISLAND OF ELBA THE 4 LATECOMERS PULL OUT PISTOLS AND GRENADES AND TAKE CONTROL OF THE PLANE.

THEIR LEADER CALLS HIMSELF CAPTAIN MAHMOUD AND SAYS HE IS A FREEDOM FIGHTER.



THE PLANE NEEDS REFUELLING AND LANDS AT ROME AIRPORT - THE GERMAN AUTHORITIES WANT IT DETAINED UNTIL THEIR ANTI-TERRORIST SQUAD ARRIVE - BUT THE PLANE IS ALLOWED TO LEAVE FOR CYPRUS THEN TO DUBAI IN THE PERSIAN GULF.



This is an extract from experimental material created by the Jordanhill Project. Further details about the material, including its availability and cost, can be obtained from O. J. Dunlop, Department of Economics and Modern Studies, Jordanhill College, Glasgow G13 1PP.

based upon mutual respect within which specific responsibilities would be allocated by common consent, and in accordance with the ease with which such duties could be undertaken in a particular institution, be it school or college.

Thus since late October 1977, when the inaugural meeting of teachers and college staff participating in the Jordanhill Project in International Understanding took place at the College, twice termly planning and policy formation meetings held on weekdays tend to be punctuated by visits by College tutors to the JPIU schools. It seems likely that such visits will become more frequent as the Project gathers momentum in the new school session. Such meetings tend to relate to the servicing of schools' needs (e.g. the design and production of graphics intended for class or teacher use), attempting to solve in discussion a variety of pedagogical problems and, increasingly, the matter of pupil achievement. Separate discussions with senior staff may relate to the possible formation of a policy towards e.g. Development Education within the school as a whole. The achievements of the first year of the Project and the relative ease with which policy decisions have been reached, relate to the secondary school subject which is the vehicle being used to implement the 1974 UNESCO Recommendation. That subject is Modern Studies.

Modern Studies

In the beginning there was no Modern Studies. It was first introduced in 1959 as an examination subject at Ordinary grade in the Scottish Certificate of Education. Since 1962, when only 350 candidates sat the first examination, its growth, which can be studied in the presentation statistics published by the Scottish Certificate of Education Examination Board (SCEEB), has been vigorous. In 1968 able young people in the senior school and students in further education colleges seeking entrance to university for the first time had an opportunity to sit an examination in Modern Studies at Higher grade. In the same year **Modern Studies for School Leavers**(4) was published by the Scottish Education Department and proclaimed as an event of some significance for the social subjects in Scot-

land and elsewhere.

The growth of Modern Studies in secondary schools and in further education colleges in Scotland had a predictable effect on the training of graduates of universities who were to become teachers of the new subject. For 15 years now, the largest of the Scottish colleges of education have been engaged in coping with the demand for qualified teachers of Modern Studies, in the context of both pre- and in-service training. In recent years, as the subject has become established in schools, career prospects in Modern Studies have greatly improved, enabling graduates who are qualified to teach the subject to become Heads of Department. Thus the subject which began somewhat tentatively in the middle years of the Scottish secondary school almost twenty years ago is now firmly established as a continuum from S1 to S6 in a substantial number of institutions in Scotland.

As a social and environmental course with a contemporary focus Modern Studies has been criticised by those who point to its dubious antecedents and also argue that it requires from young people an approach to questions of value and social ethics which only experience and maturity can bring. Its lack of 'pedigree' is of no real consequence; whatever it may lack in this regard is amply compensated by an irrepressible hybrid vigour.

The criticism that Modern Studies requires from pupils a wisdom — particularly in social self-consciousness — which cannot properly be expected of them, can only be tested in practice. Certainly, some of the SCE examination questions(5) posed to boys and girls of 16, 17 and 18 years of age have not yet produced answers from the grey heads of diplomacy, political science and political economy, and there is a case for avoiding the impression that there are answers to be found in text books and classrooms which elude leaders of nations and of thought. But there is also a case for bringing people into contact with the scope for social choice and the difficulties inherent in exercising such choice early rather than late — or not at all. Opinions harden quickly. Social attitudes once formed are slow to change and whatever can be done early in their lives to help individuals think

rationally about social and political issues will bring a greater benefit than equivalent efforts later — when barriers of bias and bigotry will be even more difficult to overcome.

The syllabus in Modern Studies stresses ongoing and emerging issues at home and abroad. In dealing with matters of concern such as the role of government, industrial relations, news presentation in the mass media, Britain's relationship with Europe, great power rivalry, race relations, the problems of less-developed countries, world population and food supply, the impact of technological change on society and the problems of the global environment, the content of Modern Studies is clearly the subject matter of this day and age and mirrors those listed in the UNESCO Recommendation. The range of topics in the syllabus impinge upon each other at many points and the young person who develops an understanding of this has learned a most important aspect of a modern, complex society — an aspect which individuals and whole societies have at times overlooked, and for the omission of which they have paid very heavily. The relationship between economic, ecological, social and political factors in a local, national and world community illustrate the point and are central to the subject matter of 'Modern Studies as it is at the present time.

The 'new' Modern Studies

The success of Modern Studies and its penetration of all sections of the secondary school is really a success for curricular innovation. Its multi-disciplinary character could provide an answer to those who, quite correctly in my view, are sceptical about the educational merits and practicality of introducing and — more important — being able to sustain interdisciplinary courses of study in secondary schools.

'... what is assumed by some teachers is that the simple introduction of inter-disciplinary courses of study automatically ensures that curricular "innovation" and "improvement" have taken place — that the thinking is over when often it has not really started. The complexity of its nature demands some clear statements about pur-

pose and intention', (6)

Instead of the need to construct a complex and delicate framework to enable 'integration' to take place in individual institutions (without any guarantee that integration will ever occur) the teacher of Modern Studies (who before training must be academically endowed with degree passes in at least three social subjects) (7) is the integrating agency and so is professionally competent to teach the bulk, if not all, of the syllabus.

Yet, there is no room for complacency. Although Modern Studies has proved to be successful and popular — a popularity which is closely identified in the minds of its students and their parents as well as its teachers with the relevance of its content to contemporary society — it is a subject which in the mid 1970s began to display signs of outgrowing those structures of syllabus design and assessment procedures which had influenced its origins and early stages of development. (8)

The original SCE 'O' grade in Modern Studies tried to test simple intellectual skills mainly in areas of knowledge and comprehension and indeed the emphasis in the examination in the early 1960s was often, as was that of other social subjects at that time, on unstructured recall — for example, write notes on the Cold War. Subsequently, questions were framed to be more precise and to examine a variety of intellectual competencies.

A second trend in the nature of questions at both 'O' and 'H' grade was an increased emphasis on social issues and on a tendency to examine institutions through their significance to the individual or the family rather than as functional or structural entities. Case study in the classroom is of interest to children and makes for more classroom enthusiasm. It is also of great value to examiners as an effective means of testing simple application rather than rote learning. Decision-taking is an obvious extension of case study and has an increasing importance in both the classroom and the examination hall.

In addition to these trends relating to both assessment and classroom practice, greater attention has come to be paid to the examination of attitudes. The development of under-

standing, tolerance and concern in young people is clearly of considerable importance. In the new syllabus in 'O' grade Modern Studies (the first examination of which was in May of 1978) not only has prominence been given to definition, and to precision in terms of aims, criteria and goals (Table 2). Also, a great deal of attention has been allocated to the need to develop attitudes of a positive nature towards individuals who are less-privileged, or of different origins or traditions, and towards institutions which support and safeguard them.

TABLE TWO: THE NEW EXAMINATION IN 'O' GRADE MODERN STUDIES

Definition and Aims of Modern Studies: Modern Studies is defined as a multi-disciplinary study of contemporary society. It deploys skills, concepts and knowledge drawn selectively from the social subjects to focus on social, economic and political issues of concern to individuals and groups at local, national and international levels.

Through the study of contemporary society and issues, Modern Studies aims

- (a) to develop knowledge and understanding of contemporary society, its changing nature, its institutions and the influences acting upon them;
- (b) to develop the practical and intellectual skills necessary for the study and intelligent discussion of contemporary issues;
- (c) to encourage the formation of considered attitudes of an intellectual social and political nature, and thus contribute to the candidate's preparation for full and active membership of society.

The Examination will consist of three elements; an objective test paper (45 minutes), a written paper (2 hours), and a Special Study to be internally assessed.

Syllabus

Section A: Individual, family and community; Scotland; Britain.

Section B: International relations and organisations (International Relations since 1945; International organisations).

Section C: The Great Powers (USA Today; USSR Today; China Today).

The Special Study

The Special Study is a project to be undertaken in school or college on an individual or group basis and must conform to the Definition, Aims, Criteria and Goals of Modern Studies . . .

The assessment of attitudinal change is notoriously difficult and it is uncertain whether a shift or improvement in attitudes towards, say, developing countries is likely to be lasting. I would claim, however, that the development of attitudes towards an issue should

emanate from an acquisition of knowledge and understanding of that same issue. In the new 'O' grade syllabus in Modern Studies the component known as the Special Study, which is pupil-centred and subject to school assessment, may increase the likelihood of positive pupil attitudes. In this the professionalism of the teacher is of paramount importance; only he is able to know the minds of his pupils.

It is on this stage and in such a context that the first batch of JPIU materials, samples from which accompany this article, are being designed and presented. Later on in session 1978-79 their application to the Special Study will be evaluated and in this a college colleague who is an educational psychologist has been assured of the co-operation of the examining board. As the Project develops, the focus will veer towards a younger mixed ability age group who are in secondary classes S1 and S2. In Table 3, which is a draft approach to this audience appropriate to the theme 'The Emergent Nation', the influence of the 'new' Modern Studies on aims and behavioural objectives is apparent.

TABLE THREE: A UNIT ON THE EMERGENT NATION Aims

To produce an empathetic response from pupils in that they understand and identify with the economic, political, social and cultural patterns of life in one or more of the emergent nations.

Behavioural Objectives:

(a) Contrasting Educational Systems

By the end of the course the pupils should be able to —

- 1) Describe the nature of the educational system in a given emergent nation.
- 2) Describe the Scottish educational system.
- 3) Compare and contrast both systems.
- 4) Describe the possible experiences of a child being educated in an emergent nation.

(b) Life Styles

By the end of the course the pupils should be able to —

- 1) Describe the life style of an individual within an emergent nation drawing attention to the economic, political, social and cultural constraints upon the family as reflected by diet, employment opportunities, medical provision, religious attitudes, political expression, housing conditions, family obligations and duties, social obligations and duties etc.
- 2) Produce a composite picture of the life style within the pupil's own family.
- 3) Compare and contrast the given life styles revealing the merits and disadvantages of each.

A final note of caution

A study of Section V(18) of the UNESCO Recommendation of 1974 entitled 'Study of the major problems of mankind', or a perusal of the later document from UNESCO entitled 'Recapitulatory List of Problems and Objectives of UNESCO for 1977-1982' indicate that almost all of the topics or problems are of a social nature. Perhaps this is self-evident. The bulk of those topics or problems are, however, especially appropriate to the related fields of politics and economics.

The concern expressed in July 1978 by two government ministers on the need to promote Education for International Understanding and Development Education is to be applauded. Moreover, the fact that more generous funding now exists to discuss approaches in the formal and informal sectors of education is both reassuring and encouraging. Such funds — notably from the Development Education Fund at the ODM — will do more than just 'prime the pump' in terms of the provision of teaching resources, some of which will emanate from the Jordanhill Project. Yet one worrying question remains. WHO is going to teach about (or for) international understanding?

The issues embodied in the UNESCO Recommendation are ones which require careful handling. There is nothing more dangerous, if past Scottish experience is anything to go by, than taking the textbook or resources pack and teaching instinctively, perhaps only one step ahead of the class. Education for international understanding, like political education, is a most sensitive curricular area. (9) If no formal exposure to politics has taken place on the part of those who would profess to teach it — despite a daily exposure to local, national and international political affairs in the media — then there could well be mis-education and an accompanying deterioration in attitudes. Such an outcome would be most unfortunate and contrary to the hopes expressed in Overseas Development Paper No. 14.

I would thus make a plea to those working groups likely to be concerned about aspects of Development Education and Education for International Understanding in the months ahead to recognise that to teach for inter-

national understanding implies the emergence of a cadre of professionally competent teachers. In this regard appropriate initial and in-service teacher training could be of crucial importance. Modern Studies is the Scottish answer to this problem and in breaking 'the vicious circle of neglect' (10) in the area of international understanding it might well serve as a model for efforts elsewhere. To those who stand at the brink and who hesitate I would say: 'come on in, the water's fine'.

O. J. DUNLOP

Jim Dunlop is senior lecturer in the department of economics and modern studies at Jordanhill College, and director of the Jordanhill Project. He has been chairman of the Modern Studies Association, and is editor of **Modern Studies: Origins, Aims and Development**, Macmillan 1977.

References

1. Overseas Development Paper No. 14 **Development Education**. Report and Recommendations by Working Party of the Advisory Committee on Development Education. HMSO July 1978.
2. **Recommendation concerning Education for International Understanding, Co-operation and Peace and Education relating to Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms**.
3. DES Circular 9/76.
4. Curriculum Paper 3 '**Modern Studies for School Leavers**' HMSO 1968.
5. For details of SCE syllabi in Modern Studies apply to the Scottish Certificate of Education Examination Board, Ironmills Road, Dalkeith, Midlothian EH22 1BR. In addition, examples of questions which have appeared in recent SCE examinations are obtainable from Robert Gibson and Sons, Glasgow, Ltd., 17 Fitzroy Place, Glasgow G3 7SF or through any bookseller.
6. T. W. F. Allan HMI, Report on 'The aims, objectives and methodology of an interdisciplinary approach to the teaching of human sciences in secondary education.' Council of Europe document DECS/EGT (75) 46.
7. The entry regulations governing Modern Studies, which are subject to periodic review by the SED, in general require a graduate of a university to have degree passes in three social subjects. These, in specified combinations, include Economics, Geography, History or Economic History, Politics and Sociology.
8. For further information see **Modern Studies: Origins, aims and development**, ed Dunlop, published by Macmillan Education 1977.
9. See for example the section on political competence in **Curriculum 11-16. Working paper by HM Inspectorate**, DES, 1977.
10. David and Jill Wright, UNESCO/FAO report **The Changing World in the Classroom**, 1974.

In-service Education at a Distance: the role of the Open University

David Grugeon, Open University, UK

During the 1970s, over 100,000 teachers have registered with the Open University for courses either in the undergraduate or in the post-experience / associate student programme. In 1971, the first teaching year, teachers comprised forty per cent of the total undergraduate body; eighty-six per cent of the first graduates were teachers. By 1978, teachers made up twenty-seven per cent of the students and forty-six per cent of the new graduates. This is a vast contribution for one institution (albeit a national one) to make to the continuing and in-service education of one profession.

Why should studying at a distance be such an appealing activity to teachers who spend most of their time practising their craft in classrooms, face-to-face with their students? Thinking of my own days as a school teacher I recall my frustration at spending too much of my time in hectic classroom activity and too little of my energy in preparation, follow up and consultation. So perhaps the sheer contrast provided by carefully structured home study materials and programmes may supply part of the attraction. Other factors quickly add themselves:

flexibility as to when and where to study, dovetailing with home and work commitments;

high quality materials produced by teams of experts;

attractive presentation of the correspondence texts/home experiment kits/broadcasts;

self-interest in gaining a degree, diploma or certificate;

opportunity for speedy up-dating in specific fields of interest from a national resource centre.

If these are some of the reasons that have brought twenty per cent of the teaching profession to the Open University in the 1970s, what additional attractions may the University hold for the collective bodies that have con-

cern for the advancement of teaching? Why, for example, have the Department of Education and Science (DES) and the Schools Council been so supportive towards the OU's plans for developing its contributions in this area? The OU's most immediate and substantial help towards a national objective has been the sheer number of serving teachers who have become graduates. The experience of Birkbeck, with teachers forming a high proportion of its part-time degree students, gave promise to the original OU Planning Committee ten years ago that a nationwide teaching provision for part-time degree studies would receive a strong response from teachers. Distance teaching has enabled reasonable economies of scale to operate for small numbers for specialist courses in any one locality to become large numbers in national terms. It is also capable of providing a substantial response to national reports (Bullock, Warnock, Taylor) and of bringing specialist help to part of the United Kingdom that may not always have the resources (human and material) immediately to hand.

Perhaps most important of all is the vexed question of the application of in-service education to classroom practice. Even if the proposals in the James Report for radical enlargement of in-service courses of an extended nature had been realised, how positive would the chances have been for teachers to act on their new perspectives? An academic equivalent to a religious 'retreat' may have considerable value in itself for the sanity of the individual during a long career but it does not of itself ensure the renewal and enhancement of the individual as a teacher when he or she return to school. Similarly, there would be severe limitations to a home study course that merely involved some inspiring meditative reading at bedtime. Current plans to aim for a four-fold increase in in-service provision by 1981 will still achieve very little if they are

based on 'more of the same' models. We have to find ways to build in-service activity into the basic structure of schools, so that (a) teachers can realise their professional curriculum objectives in practice and (b) those objectives are deeply informed by wisdom accumulated from a national and international diversity of theoretical and practical perspectives. In the current jargon, 'mixed modes of study' would appear to provide the most fruitful opportunity for the maximum number of teachers to achieve these goals.

How does the Open University at present contribute or plan to contribute to the picture just outlined? Here I should pause to say that the University has recently redefined its role in non-degree teaching, following the reception of a report from the Committee on Continuing Education, set up by the University Council and chaired by Sir Peter Venables (who also chaired the original Planning Committee of the University from 1967 to 1969). The University's response to the recent report has been wholehearted: Professor Ralph Smith, a former Acting-Vice-Chancellor, has become Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Continuing Education; an Interim Delegacy for Continuing Education (with strong external membership) has been appointed; and the University has bid to government for funding which would enable it to begin to develop a programme from 1980 which may lead to provision in continuing education on the scale envisaged by the 'Venables Report'.

Thus what I am describing here is the University's present offering or present plans before the Delegacy for Continuing Education starts its work. It may be that this is less of a limitation than it appears, as the OU's provision of courses designed as in-service courses for teachers, through its Post-experience course programme, is already substantial and has been more rapid than possible developments in business and commerce and in community and health services.

First degree courses as in-service training and retraining

While it is clear that the OU undergraduate programme is in itself a major contribution to the extension of continuing education, by open access to working adults studying part-

time, it is not always recognised that a high proportion of undergraduate courses are in themselves in-service education, with strong relevance to work in schools. This is obvious in the case of the twelve courses offered in 1978 by the Faculty of Educational Studies. But when one considers the deliberate choice, by many teachers, of courses from other Faculties, in the physical sciences, mathematics, design and technology and the humanities, it starts to become apparent that this is of direct, retraining, relevance in areas where there is a growing demand for specialist teaching. Indeed, many teachers have chosen to forego the fastest route (through the award of maximum credit exemptions to those following programmes in educational studies) in order to gain the more specialist qualifications that may be of use in middle, secondary and further education.

Post-experience courses to meet specific in-service needs

Experience since 1973, with its **Reading Development** course reaching over twelve thousand teachers led to expansion towards a **Diploma in Reading Development** by the addition of a new course in **Language Development** and two further modules which engage teachers in extensive practical work in the classroom. Further courses now being developed include **Mathematics Across the Curriculum** for 1980 (of particular importance at the time of a national enquiry into mathematics teaching in schools) and **Education and the Teacher: an introduction to Curriculum Review and Pupil Assessment** for 1981 — this latter course has received Schools Council support of £120,000. Professor John Merritt has been acting as Academic Co-ordinator of the INSET courses in the OU's post-experience programme: he and his colleagues will provide the major impetus behind plans for future INSET diplomas that come before the Delegacy.

Initial training

There has been a small amount of experience of collaborative schemes whereby students in initial training are entered for OU courses. It is also the case that mature stu-

dents without formal qualifications to enter initial training have found OU studies a convenient alternative entry route. OU provision for adults in continuing education thus becomes of use for those intending to teach.

Use of Open University materials and teaching strategies

It is well known that individual correspondence texts, radio and television programmes and set books and readers have been widely used in initial and in-service courses. It is also of interest that some thousands of teacher educators have themselves been either students or members of the part-time academic staff of the University. There have been rich opportunities to participate in modular courses for credit, to experience specific aspects of course design (individual projects, self-assessment questions and activities), to master the skills and approaches of teaching and learning by sensitive and precise written comments on assignments that form the basis of communication in a home-based study system, and to explore new methods of assisting students on a common course to structure their own small group discussions.

* * *

During the 1980s there are a number of likely moves that will involve the Open University in expanding and diversifying its continuing in-service provision for teachers. I list them in no particular order of priority:

(a) Higher Degrees

In a recent survey of 4,600 OU graduates, 65% of teachers and lecturers declared an interest in studying for a higher degree with the OU. A considerable number have already gone on to take these qualifications (mainly at Masters level) through other universities and polytechnics. There is likely to be a modest expansion of OU service, through joint internal and external supervision of higher degree students for research credits towards B.Phil, M. Phil and D. Phil degrees. There may also be a taught B.Phil course in educational studies. It is important to the OU academic staff, as I know from recent experience of supervising M.Phil students, to maintain our own advanced teaching and research, and there may be a substantial de-

mand for higher degree work that the OU should meet and that others cannot satisfy. But I expect that the OU's educational advisory service, through its regional structure, will divert far more graduates towards other institutions in their region than are encouraged to become postgraduate at a distance from Milton Keynes.

(b) Development of School-Focussed Patterns of In-Service Training

The OU and the Polytechnic of Central London are supervising a joint research project, based in a number of schools and colleges, aiming to establish a school-focussed pattern for the professional self-evaluation and development of serving teachers. Teachers directly engaged in the project work largely in their own schools in a team which includes students in initial training and teacher trainers. The project is designed to provide a significant multiplier effect which will operate in two ways:

(i) Part of the work of each team is to develop activities within the school which foster the professional development of teachers not directly involved in the project.

(ii) A group of teacher trainers not actively engaged in the initiation of the project act as observers so that they can then extend the project to other locations, when a new cohort of observers becomes involved.

This is just one example of co-operative research and development in the in-service field that the OU is becoming engaged in. Another is the funding by the Health Education Council of a Senior Research Officer to test the appropriateness for use by school teachers of materials produced in a OU short course **The First Years of Life**. Thus materials produced primarily as part of an adult education commitment to parent education may also come to be of use in educating future parents.

(c) In-service support for teachers in adult education

The Venables Committee received strong pressure, in external and internal submissions of evidence, to encourage the University to make early moves to develop adult tutor training. This extract from paragraph

35 of the report gives some of the flavour:

'Training for teachers in the further and adult education fields is an area where present provision is thought to be inadequate. In evidence, local authorities and national bodies, such as the Association of Education Committees, the British Association for Commercial and Industrial Education and the National Institute of Adult Education, saw this as a fruitful field for development. It was suggested that a nationally recognized qualification for adult tutors was needed and that help was also required in training people to produce teaching materials, and to acquire the particular skills needed by study group leaders in more learner-centred situations. Even where subject matter may be orthodox, new methods may be needed to maintain improved access. The widening of access and the increased scope of the provision have implications for tutors in the structuring of their own work.

Many bodies have built up expertise in these fields over many years of adult and further education, and the Committee has been encouraged by the offer of collaboration in this field from such bodies as the Workers' Educational Association, BACIE, university departments of adult education, the Association of Principals of Colleges, and the BBC. Allied to the training of tutors is the training of counsellors, both basic training, which might be common to a number of different areas, and the kind of training which would be needed by educational counsellors for the disabled students and for the disadvantaged; by outreach workers in the community; by animateurs; and by advisory service staff.'

(d) Continuous updating of teaching materials and activities

New ways of designing courses that are constantly self-renewing are now being experimented with (in OU jargon, one method is described as a 'rolling remake' whereby sections of a course are redesigned each year until the whole course has been changed). The Schools Council Field Officer principle is being reapplied by the temporary appointment of seconded teachers

and research assistants to act as Development Officers to test and design teaching materials in collaboration with teachers based in schools. Activities, projects and other learning exercises can be constantly updated by such means and in-service distance teaching moves away from a classic (and somewhat out of favour) undergraduate model of a course that stands largely unaltered for 4-8 years.

(e) Collaboration

A coherent pattern of in-service provision is an economic, a political and — above all — an educational necessity. If our aim is to support the maximum possible number of teachers in schools to achieve their teaching objectives through the maximum use of scarce human and material resources of high quality, we have to work together. In a recent paper to the Secretary of State for Education it is refreshing to see the OU, with its extraordinarily thrusting public image, state roundly:

'there are obvious limits to what can be achieved most economically and efficiently by distance-learning methods. The Open University contribution must be seen as part of a spectrum which includes school-based group work, teachers' centre work, LEA short courses, and courses provided by other institutions. For this reason it is imperative that any courses or learning materials which are developed should complement rather than compete with whatever is done by other agencies. The Open University should also assist in the dissemination of ideas and practices developed in other institutions.'

(f) Accreditation and Evaluation

University traditions of teaching and research, applied to the function of professional updating, offer hope that the internal Open University task — 'a self-improving teaching system' — may assist the achievement of local, regional and national goals. With our partners in in-service provision throughout the United Kingdom we aim for activity that is intellectually, emotionally and practically rewarding for members of an exhilarating, demanding and complex profession. New approaches to evaluation and accreditation are now being

explored. It is reasonable to expect that ways will be found to recognise the worth of different kinds of provision — both for the benefit of the providers in improving their activity and for the support to the individual in applying himself intelligently towards nationally accredited qualifications.

DAVID GRUGEON

David Grugeon is a Cambridge English graduate; after taking the PGCE at London, he taught in primary schools in Battersea and helped to set up the National Extension College in Cambridge. For five years he taught adult correspondence students by radio for

GCE 'O' and 'A' levels in a joint BBC/NEC project. He was also senior lecturer in English at Furzedown College of Education, Tooting, before joining the Open University in 1969, first as Regional Director for East Anglia and later as Deputy Director of Studies, Regional Tutorial Services, where his work centres on the roles and functions of the 6,000 part-time academic staff who teach for the Open University throughout the United Kingdom. He edits the University's pedagogical journal **Teaching at a Distance**. With Elizabeth Grugeon, he has contributed to the OU courses **Language and Learning** and **Reading Development**. He was one of five members of the Open University Senate elected to serve on the Open University's Committee on Continuing Education, chaired by Sir Peter Venables.

STUDYING COMMUNITY HEALTH

Oxfam Education Department recently sponsored a curriculum development project on the theme of community health. The project was based in five primary schools in Bath, and organised in co-operation with Avon Education Committee. Its full-time director was Michael Comer. It involved comparing and contrasting the local health-services with the work of the People's Health Centre at Savar, near Dacca, Bangladesh, and exploring the ways in which British children could actively co-operate with people in other countries. An interesting report is now available. It contains an introduction by Og Thomas, and some valuable comments and material on the evaluation of smallish-scale curriculum projects. It is available from Oxfam Education Department, 274 Banbury Road, Oxford, price 50p.

FILMS ON RACE RELATIONS

The Commission for Racial Equality has published a second, completely revised edition of the booklet **Film Catalogue: Community and Race Relations**. More than 100 films are listed. Each entry includes details of length, cost of hire, country of origin, whether it's colour or black and white, and a brief description of scope and content. The films are indexed by title and subject and addresses of all the distributors whose films are listed are given. Copies available free of charge, from the Information Department, Commission for Racial Equality, 10/12 Allington Street, London SW1E 5EH.

'SPARE A THOUGHT'

'The intention of this film,' writes its producer, 'is to bring awareness of world problems into the home. Into the kitchen. Into the bedroom. Into the bathroom. It asks for a thought to be spared for the sources of what, in a country such as Britain, are considered to be the everyday necessities of life. It shows what the tea you drink, and the sugar that sweetens it, and the aluminium kettle that heats the water, have got to do with third world poverty.' The film runs for 20 minutes and is accompanied by background notes, a quiz and a poster. It can be hired from Christian Aid, PO Box 1, London SW9 8BH.

NEW TEXTBOOKS

There are two new textbooks in the Longman Social Studies series. **World Inequality** by John Turner states its theme clearly and firmly in its opening sentence: 'Our world is divided into rich and poor, and there are many more poor than rich.' The book goes on to discuss issues such as colonialism, exploitation, the role and importance of OPEC, the concept of self-reliance, various choices in development as illustrated by China and Brazil, and the search for a new economic order. **Race Relations in Britain** by Mercia Last refers to colonialism and the slave trade in its discussion of the background to prejudice, and has some useful information about migrations in the past. The books cost 95p each, and inspection copies can be obtained from Longman Group, Fourth Avenue, Harlow, Essex CM19 5AA.

Standing Apart from the Workaday World: in-service, continuing and adult education

Peter Baynes, University of London Goldsmiths' College

In speaking of 'adult education' as the term is understood and applied in relation to the English educational system, it is necessary to distinguish it from 'the education of adults'. 'Adult Education' (when the capital letters are used) is a much narrower concept, and is often used in association with the term 'non-vocational' — indeed, the Committee which produced the report 'Adult Education: a Plan for Development' in 1973 (the Russell Committee) was required by the Department of Education and Science in its terms of reference: 'To assess the need for and to review the provision of non-vocational adult education in England and Wales.'

Since 'in-service education' is an equally narrow concept, referring, in the context of this journal, specifically to the further education of qualified teachers (and thus, presumably, highly vocational), one might be justified in concluding that the two ideas were incompatible, and that adult education had no role at all in in-service education. This article might thus end here, were it not for the existence of the word 'continuing' in the title, the blessed quirkness of people in refusing to don conceptual strait jackets, and the fact that occupations other than teaching have in-service needs.

The rejection of strait jackets can fairly easily be demonstrated; the use of 'continuing' will cause us to glance at some semantic associations; and the various applications of 'in-service' will bear some examination.

The Uses of Non-vocational Education

The Extra-mural Department of the University of London provides, within the framework of its 'University Extension' work, a range of Diplomas in the Humanities, enabling adult students if they so wish to engage in a four year programme of graded study with a diploma awarded to those who successfully complete the appropriate course and pass its examinations. Although these diploma courses (in Sociology, Economics, History, Literature, History of Art — and several more subject areas) are specifically regarded as non-vocational, many school teachers (and others) have seen them as a valuable means of professional enrichment. Similarly, when the Open University started operating, again with a non-vocational brief, some 40 per cent of its registered students were members of the teaching profession, who may or may not have had non-vocational motives for enrolling. (The percentage has fallen since — with the growth of B.Ed. courses validated by other universities).

The 'City Lit', London's biggest centre for non-vocational adult education, amid its many other activities runs an extensive programme in aspects of drama and the techniques of theatre. As the City Lit is close to the heart of theatreland, just off Drury Lane, many

of the adult students in these classes are actors or others associated professionally with the theatre. In the School of Adult and Social Studies at Goldsmiths' College we find that professional or 'semi-pro' musicians are among those attracted to our supposedly non-vocational courses and classes in, for example, jazz musicianship.

It is not of course suggested that the adult students in these four examples are doing anything wrong in avoiding the labels educational administrators would hang on them. Far from it: they are making intelligent use of the system. But whether the system makes sense may be queried. There is, as may be imagined, a good historical explanation for (and a considerable and serious literature about) the 'vocational/non-vocational' division in our educational thinking. There is certainly a rational basis for the belief that many adults seek further learning for all sorts of reasons — personal, developmental, spiritual, recreational — other than those determined by their working interests. But it is suggested that the only conclusion we can reasonably draw is that adult students themselves will decide what use they make of any educational experience provided, and that their own needs will determine whether a particular course is of vocational (or any other) significance to them.

Thus Adult Education in its peculiarly English sense of standing apart from the workaday world, and providing its students with mental, spiritual and physical enrichment of their personal lives, has, despite its declared intentions, been of considerable practical benefit to vocationally motivated adults in general; and (because of their special awareness of the advantages that further education could bring) to a large number of teachers in particular.

To continue, or not to continue . . .

But even in England, Adult Education is changing, and here we must turn to the semantic niceties involved in the word 'continuing' and its derivatives or rivals.

Five years after the then Minister of Education — Mrs Margaret Thatcher — said in her foreword to the Russell report that she had arranged for its immediate publication: 'because of the importance of the subject, and the great interest with which it is awaited' we saw in 1978 the partial implementation of one of the Report's recommendations: the establishment of a national Advisory Council. (The Report had called for a 'Development Council', but the implications of that title for a no-growth economy were too frightening to contemplate.)

The body is, however, an 'Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education', not for Adult Edu-

cation alone, and we need to ask the reason for this extension. Some adult educationists would maintain that it is an unnecessary or even a meaningless phrase: if adult education is **not** continuing (in several senses of the word), they would ask, what is it? Some would argue that there is nothing new in the concept, while others would prefer to speak of 'life-long education', 'education permanente' or 'recurrent education'. Those who prefer alternatives maintain that 'continuing education' is inextricably linked with an 'end on' model of education, but all these concepts start from the basis that education is not completed when school finishes, and perhaps too much is made of the differences between them. Interesting as the debate is, there is not scope to enter it now. In his address to the annual conference of the National Institute of Adult Education in 1975 Gerald Fowler said:

'In recent years considerable attention has been lavished in many western countries, and in international organisations, upon the concept of recurrent, or lifelong, or continuing education. The three terms do not mean exactly the same, but for the purposes of today's exercise we may treat them as broadly equivalent . . . It is perhaps easiest to explain what is at the root of this concept by contrasting it with a principle which has informed educational development in this country and indeed in the rest of the world hitherto — what is often called the "apprenticeship for life" principle. At the heart of that is the notion that education meets working life end on, and once working has taken over, education ceases . . . By contrast . . . a recurrent or lifelong system would make provision for everyone to interpose formal learning, or informal but recognised learning, with work throughout life. One might go further and suggest that learning might also be interpolated with retirement. Work itself can also be regarded as a learning situation, as can any kind of leisure activity.' (1)

Thus we get the idea that education should be seen as an open system, available throughout life and determined by the changing needs of the individual man or woman, whether those needs are work related or not. To quote two other writers on 'Recurrent Education':

'The prevailing paradigm of modern education is dominated by the provision of courses . . . Recurrent Education, on the other hand, must not rely on pre-conceived programmes of study that, as far as the process of living is concerned, have little obvious relevance but whose major function is the 'elevation' of some individuals over others. Recurrent Education must be learner-centred in every sense of the term, and the role of the teacher changes from that of purveyor to that of facilitator,' (2)

What, some would ask, is all the fuss about? Is not the idea of 'learner-centred education' at the root of (for example) the Workers' Educational Association philosophy, with its emphasis on students reaching agreement with their tutors on the syllabus to be followed? And is not the post-school system of education in this country in itself an example of Recurrent Edu-

cation, with its many and diverse institutions and its rich opportunities for all to learn anything they want at almost any time?

Of course adult educationists have always paid attention to the expressed needs of their students — if only because since these students are volunteers they need not stay if they are dissatisfied. Equally, the present national educational framework has many elements that are essential to a system of recurrent or continuing education. Similarly, as was earlier pointed out, individual adult students will certainly use the system as it exists to make their own 'recurrent' provision. But the inclusion of the word 'Continuing' in the title of the newly established Advisory Council shows a significant shift in emphasis, and a possible readiness to think what in some quarters was previously unthinkable.

Harold Wiltshire, formerly Professor of Adult Education in the University of Nottingham, saw the 'Great Tradition' in adult education as committed: 'to a particular curriculum, to the humane or liberal studies (which I take to mean those subjects which can reasonably be expected to concern us as men and women — not as technicians, functionaries or examinees)', and he speaks of adult students as having: 'a particular attitude — the non-vocational attitude — towards their studies.' (3)

The concept of recurrent education, and its acknowledgement nationally by the inclusion of the phrase 'continuing education' in the title and the brief of the Advisory Council do not deny this 'Great Tradition': rather, it is argued, if 'continuing education' is to be more than a mere incantation inseparable in future in educational circles from the word 'adult' it must mean that we are prepared to build on the Great Tradition in ways relevant to the needs of today.

In the address already quoted, Gerald Fowler drew attention to the fact that the experience of adult education in this country 'may suggest that educational offerings without apparent job relevance appeal most to the middle class, whether because some of its members see wider extrinsic advantages in further learning, or because they have in their previous education come to value learning intrinsically, for its own sake.'

Yet when, prompted by the campaign led by the British Association of Settlements and Social Action Centres, pump-primed by the Department of Education and Science and massively aided by the programmes and the referral system of the British Broadcasting Corporation, adult education engaged in an adult literacy programme over the last two or three years, it made direct and effective contact with thousands of people, mainly working class, who saw a relevance in this offering which in some instances was certainly directly job related, but in others was more concerned with the acquisition of 'life-skills'.

The Advisory Council for Adult and Continuing Education has already seen the need to extend the work beyond that involved in overcoming adult illiteracy. That exercises in itself (which must continue) revealed a need for basic adult education which went far beyond the need to read and write, and the Council has estab-

lished a working party to examine the extent of this need and to suggest ways in which it might be met.

To some this may seem a far cry from the Great Tradition. Some may see it as not the job of adult education at all, and ask what is wrong with our schools, that they have so signally (in this view) failed to deliver. But the recurrent educationist will see this development as a small step towards the creation of a coherent system that enables the adult student to satisfy his educational needs as and when they become apparent to him. It may shock us to know that a man in his late forties avoided the need to read until he started to receive letters from his son who had emigrated to Australia, but this is a true example. This is not of course to argue that the teaching of reading (or anything else) should be abandoned in schools: it is simply a stark example of how irrelevant some learning may appear until it really matters.

Gerald Fowler thus suggests 'that learning resources must be built upon the perceived needs of individuals and of social groups — perceived by them rather than by educationists. This means that learning resources must be made available in the home, and to those who meet for work, leisure, sport or any kind of voluntary group activity' (5) and he goes on to point out that those most alienated from education at present are those most affected by what the social scientists call 'multiple deprivation' — and that hence recurrent education must be accompanied by a drastic re-allocation of communal resources if it is not to become as selective as 'the conventional end-on system'. It is also evident that recurrent education must imply that all the physical resources of education must be employed as fully as possible, and that both plant and personnel, whether presently within the 'public' or the 'private' sector of Higher Education, or the 'vocational' or 'non-vocational' sector of Further Education (as well as facilities under the control, say, of the recreational public services) should all be seen as part of the common provision and fully exploited.

In-service Education

Thus if continuing, or recurrent, or lifelong, education is to become a reality it will involve basic changes in attitudes, responses and relationships of educators themselves — both to each other and to their students. Vocational and non-vocational educators will no longer see themselves as occupying contiguous but separate worlds. Adult educators will no longer see adult literacy work as somehow repairing the deficiencies of a faulty school system. The role of 'facilitator' may not be easily filled by someone who has previously seen it as his primary task to instruct or to inspire.

This has interesting implications for both pre-service and in-service education of teachers. Although it is true even now that many school teachers will be engaged in adult education (in a part time capacity at least) during the course of their careers, it is probably equally true that their first real acquaintance with adult education will be when they first face a class as the appointed tutor — a role for which their time at College may have left them inadequately prepared, to say the least.

It is also true that technically all students entering Colleges of Education are now adults (since the age of majority was lowered to 18). Yet it is probably equally true that the methods by which they are taught at College are little informed by the concepts of adult education. If recurrent or continuing education, in terms of the ideas but sketchily indicated earlier, are to be implemented, then adult education must be part of the pre-education of teachers — both in the sense that it affects the way they are taught and that it plays a part in their curriculum. It follows, too, that there is already a considerable job of in-service training to be done with teachers already in the field, and a continuing and updating task to be carried out in the future.

Although many school teachers teach adults as well, by far the largest part of the adult education teaching force is made up of part-timers who, for their main occupation, are not engaged in teaching at all. They are garage foremen or computer programmers, gardeners or housewives. And the majority of them have had no training or education in teaching at all when they start, and either learn quickly (and often most effectively) on the job, or come to grief and leave. Increasing numbers of them are now involved in training courses provided by their employing authority — usually the local education authority — and the DES established Advisory Committee for the Supply and Training of Teachers has recently issued a report which suggests the establishment of a locally based but eventually nationally recognised system of part time training and accreditation for these part time teachers of adults. As (if it is implemented) the final or 'Stage 3' part of this training scheme will accord qualified teacher status equivalent to that granted to those trained for and engaged in full time further education, there is an obvious need for those involved in the in-service education of teachers in schools to be informed of, and possibly involved in, these developments.

But in-service education is not confined to the teaching profession and its part time mercenaries. Lawyers, doctors, trade union officials, salesmen, engineers, nurses, farmers and pharmacists are all in need of (and frequently seek) 'up-dating', 'refresher' 'renewal' or 're-orientation' education. While many professions and occupations make their own arrangements, adult education is already involved with some. It is perhaps ironic that the Extra-mural Department of the University of Nottingham extends its own version of the Great Tradition sufficiently to make very good provision for social work training and other professionally orientated courses — both pre- and in-service. Similarly, the Extra mural Department of the University of London provides, in addition to the non-vocational diplomas mentioned earlier, a number of vocational diplomas and certificates (in Nursing, Dramatic Art and Field Biology, for instance). If, of course, one looks across to the 'vocational' side of the fence, then virtually the whole of the provision made in Colleges of Further Education, Technical Colleges and Polytechnics is regarded as either pre or in-service education. The whole drift of the argument of this article is to suggest that the association of 'continuing' education with adult

education must mean not that we should mend the fences but that, patiently and co-operatively, we should prepare to take them down.

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Towards a Fully Graduate Teaching Profession: the role of continuing and in-service education

A. V. Kelly, University of London Goldsmiths' College

The massive reorganisation of teacher education in the United Kingdom that the present decade is witnessing has at root two major purposes. Primarily, it has been prompted by the need to avoid an over-production of teachers at a time of falling school rolls. However, this has been seen as also offering a perhaps unique opportunity to raise the quality of the teaching profession both by improving the standard of new entrants to it and by ensuring the continuing education of all teachers. The first of these purposes is to be achieved by the creation of an all-graduate teaching profession, the second by an expansion of in-service provision. These two developments are clearly interrelated and I want to explore some aspects of that inter-relatedness in this paper.

It is not much more than ten years since the only graduates in the schools of England and Wales were those teachers who, after following a traditional degree course, had either entered the profession untrained or had taken a one-year course of postgraduate training. A large proportion of teachers, especially in primary and secondary modern schools, were the non-graduate products of the concurrent Certificate in Education courses provided by the Colleges of Education, or Training Colleges as they were then called. The first step towards the creation of an all-graduate teaching profession was taken as a result of the recommendation of the Robbins Report on Higher Education (1963) with the establishment of B.Ed. courses in these colleges for those students who reached a sufficiently high level of attainment on their Certificate course and were prepared to spend a further year in study.

Not only did this innovation increase the proportion of graduates in the profession, it also introduced a new concept, that of the teacher who had taken the study of Education itself to first degree level. Doubts were expressed at the time about the validity of the profes-

sional study of Education at full honours degree level, but these have gradually disappeared as the products of these courses have proved their worth in the schools and elsewhere.

The next stage in this process obviously had to be the extension of that kind of opportunity to all students training for teaching on concurrent courses. With no loss of standards, the old B.Ed. degree has been made available to an ever-increasing proportion of Certificate students but no-one would wish to claim that all those being admitted to these courses at the beginning of the 1970s were of the calibre to reach the necessary standard during their initial course. The opportunity to make this step arrived when it became necessary drastically to reduce the number of teachers in training. This reduction in admissions to concurrent courses was seized as an opportunity to raise the standards of students both on entry to initial training courses of the concurrent variety and on final completion of these courses. For this reason the intention to replace Certificate in Education courses with B.Ed. courses for all students as quickly as possible was a major feature of the White Paper, **'Education: a Framework for Expansion' (1972)**, which heralded the reorganisation of teacher education in England and Wales. As soon as the change-over can be effected, every student admitted to a concurrent course will be required to have reached the academic standard required for admission to any other degree course by passing in at least two subjects at Advanced level of the General Certificate of Education and, having thus been admitted directly to a full degree course, he will be required to attain at the end of that course standards appropriate for the award of a B.Ed. degree either at Ordinary level or, after a fourth year of study, at Honours level.

Economic stringency has delayed the achievement of most of the ambitions expressed in that White Paper, in particular the expansion of Nursery and In-service

provision, but the movement towards an all-graduate entry to the profession is well under way.

In spite of the rapidity of this development, however, no-one has really thought out in detail what it is hoped that this process will achieve. There are two particular issues that need a good deal more attention than they have so far received. Firstly, we need to be clearer about what we mean by an all-graduate profession. Do we mean merely that all should be graduates, regardless of subjects, or is it the intention that ultimately all teachers should be graduates in Education? And secondly, we need to be more precise over what is meant by a raising of standards. Is it only the academic standards of teachers that we wish to see raised or are we intending to raise their professional standards too?

These questions are, of course, closely linked and it is vital that we face up to them while the process of retooling the system of teacher education is still going on. For, once that re-organisation is complete, our new practices will have preempted the answers to them. Already the changes of the last five years have resulted in an increase in the proportion of graduates entering the teaching profession from the one-year consecutive courses of training, since the University Departments of Education have remained largely untouched by the contraction and the weight of this has fallen on the former Colleges of Education in the public sector and, within that sector, more heavily on the concurrent courses. From the administrator's viewpoint, of course, there are attractions in this change of balance, not least because the output of one-year courses can be more quickly regulated to meet any further shifts in the school population, but administrative convenience should not be allowed to lead to an acceptance of any measure without a close examination of its educational implications.

It is to a brief consideration of some of those implications that I now wish to turn and I want to begin by looking at the schools in which the teachers who emerge from these courses must work.

Nothing has characterised our schools during recent years so much as the degree and rapidity of the changes they have been subject to. The change that we have witnessed in society at large as technological progress has brought about major modifications in the very fabric of society, that process that has been described by Basil Bernstein (1967) as a shift from a closed to an open society, has been reflected in the schools in the form of a parallel move towards a more open system. Among the more obvious manifestations of this process have been deep structural changes such as the advent of a completely comprehensive system of secondary education and the spread of mixed ability groupings throughout the Primary schools and the lower classes of Secondary schools.

Within the schools this period has seen a move away from teaching of a straight didactic kind towards heuristic and individualised methods, a shift from learner passivity to learner activity. In short, a recognition that the model of teaching as the passing on of information, of 'telling' pupils what is the case, even when allied to the most carefully thought-out methods of presen-

tation and reinforcement and backed by the most up-to-date teaching aids, is highly unsophisticated and must give way to a new and more complex model of teaching as the promotion of learning by many different means, but especially through the active participation of the learner himself. This in turn has inevitably led to dramatic changes in the climate and atmosphere of the modern classroom and, in particular, in the relationships and patterns of authority to be found there. The teacher can no longer rely on his position for the authority he needs; he must develop the kind of expertise that will provide him with an authority that is differently based and that expertise must be displayed not only in his knowledge of an area of subject matter but increasingly in his pedagogic skills and his understanding of the educational process itself.

Furthermore, the curriculum development that has gone and must go hand in hand with these changes has brought about modifications in the organisation of knowledge itself, the disappearance of some of the traditional boundaries between subjects and the emergence of new ones as the very structure of our knowledge has evolved. Thus changes have occurred within traditional subject areas and new subjects or groupings of subjects, such as environmental studies, moral education and integrated science or humanities courses, have begun to appear on school time-tables, as patterns of knowledge have changed to meet the changing needs of society. In such a situation, the teacher cannot place too great a reliance on his expertise in a traditional subject area. Indeed, the more closely he is wedded to his subject the less adaptable he is likely to be to the changing demands that will be made of him. Anyone who has had experience of attempting to introduce any kind of integrated studies programme will know that it is not epistemology or logic that prevents such integration, it is the bloody-mindedness and lack of vision of certain subject specialists concerned to preserve what they usually call the 'purity and integrity' of their subject.

All of these are aspects of a fundamental shift that has occurred in our ideology of education in our notion of what schools are for. They have resulted, therefore, in far-reaching changes in the teacher's role, since he ceases to be solely an instructor and must become a guide and mentor in many areas of the growing child's experience, so that a greater emphasis is placed on his understanding of his pupils and of the processes of education and on his ability to develop the right kinds of educationally productive relationships than on his knowledge of a particular area of the curriculum. The disasters that have in some schools followed the implementation of many of the changes I have mentioned — the botched-up schemes of comprehensive education, mixed ability groupings, curriculum integration and so on that we are all familiar with and that have brought the whole notion of educational progressivism and evolution into disrepute — have resulted not from a failure on the part of some teachers to understand their subjects but from their failure to understand the process of education itself. It has become quite clear from research into mixed

ability grouping, for example, that teachers need to be committed to a system if they are to make it succeed (Barker-Lunn 1970). What has still to be sufficiently appreciated, however, is that a proper commitment requires a depth of understanding of a kind that too few teachers have yet attained.

If education is to continue to evolve — and in a rapidly developing society it is a nonsense to argue that it should not — teachers need both to be able to change with it and to be able to ensure that the changes they initiate or control represent evolution rather than revolution. Thus, the teacher's understanding of all facets of the educational process is the crucial ingredient. This has long been accepted at the Primary level of education; it is now equally true of the Secondary teacher.

It is my belief that this kind of professional understanding is not and cannot be reached on a one-year course of training by any but the most outstanding of students. And so, if it is our concern to raise the professional standards of teachers rather than merely their levels of academic achievement, we must try to ensure that all attain graduate status in Educational Studies. In the kind of evolving school system that I have tried briefly to describe, it is not enough to have teachers who are experts in a subject and have pursued a short course in the theory and practice of how to teach it. Such a course represents a limited kind of training for a relatively static task, when the task they will undertake on entering on their first and all subsequent appointments is, or should be, far from static. Furthermore, whatever attempts we make to include in these one-year courses a more substantial study of Education, there is insufficient time in which to do more than scratch the surface of the problem; and the effectiveness of such attempts is minimised by the fact that very few students at this stage of their professional development are motivated to look beyond the acquisition of a 'survival kit', consisting of the basic techniques of class control and of subject teaching method.

The assumption that a degree in any subject is evidence of an acceptable professional standard reflects in turn the assumption that in education subject content is all or most of what teachers need to be concerned with. It is thus based on an outmoded view of education, a view that until quite recently involved acceptance of the doctrine that a graduate need not be required to undergo even the brief professional training of the one-year course. That particular doctrine is no longer accepted — except in certain shortage subjects — and it is time we faced up to the logic of this, that knowledge of a subject is only part of the equipment of the modern teacher and that he needs a professional preparation that goes far beyond the techniques of class control and subject teaching method.

In short, it is time that we recognised the need for all teachers to be fully qualified educationists. Indeed, it is time that the teaching profession itself accepted the notion of the fully qualified educationist. It is, therefore, also time to acknowledge that the only acceptable concept of an all-graduate teaching profession

is one in which all are graduates in Education itself, above and beyond any qualifications they may have in other subject areas, and that any process that is designed to raise the standards of the teaching profession must begin by addressing its attention to a raising of professional standards.

In this connection it is worthwhile looking to the professional practices of others. A distinction is made among those wishing to enter the legal profession or that of the social worker not only between graduates and non-graduates but also between those who are graduates in cognate subjects, germane to the professional concerns they are about to embrace, and those who are graduates in other non-related subject areas, the latter being required to spend a longer period of professional preparation than the former. In other words, it is not assumed that any kind of graduate can be trained as readily as any other.

We could take a first step towards such a system in the teaching profession by distinguishing between those who have degrees in subjects they will spend most of their time teaching, teachers of specialist subjects in the upper reaches of the Secondary school or in Further Education, and those whose degree subject is not taught in schools at all, archaeology, for example, or law, or who are training not as specialist teachers of their subjects but as general teachers in Primary or Middle schools. Again the latter could be required to undertake a longer period of training than the former.

I would wish to argue further, however, that such a distinction, although it would represent a step towards a genuine raising of professional standards, is not enough. We will not achieve proper professional standards in the teaching profession until we recognise that all teachers should be graduates in Education itself. To say this is not to deny that at certain stages and levels of the education system graduate status in a particular subject area is crucial. It is, however, to claim that at all stages and levels of the educational process an understanding of that process is vital and that it is time we recognised this and acted on it.

If we are to act on it, there are at least the two things we need to do. The first of these is to halt, or even reverse, the present trend towards increasing the proportion of one-year trained, non-Education graduates entering the teaching profession. The second is to examine the role that in-service education can and must play in this exercise. It is to a consideration of this that I must finally turn.

The main thrust of the in-service programmes that have been mounted by local education authorities and other bodies since 1972 has been towards improving and developing the basic skills of teachers. Thus courses abound on such topics as primary mathematics, the teaching of reading, the teaching of mixed ability classes and so on. Such courses are valuable and, indeed, very important if teachers are to keep abreast of developments in the practice of education. However, they are only part of the picture, since what teachers need, if they are to adapt successfully to changing ideas and practices is, as I suggested above, not just new or updated skills but also that depth of

understanding that will enable them to know why, when and how to use them. Without this understanding the skills themselves are almost useless and it is for this reason that my main contention here is that the focus of in-service provision should be on raising the level of the teacher's professional understanding of his task, in short on creating a teaching profession in which all have attained graduate or graduate-equivalent status in Education itself.

There are several aspects of this, all of which we must look at briefly in turn. The first of these is the need to provide opportunities for those teachers who are not graduates, because they obtained their teaching qualification before the present system was established, to proceed by further study to graduate status. The old Certificate-linked B.Ed. degree was seized upon by many such teachers for this purpose and the new B.Ed. degrees have been opened up in a similar way to certificated teachers. In the University of London B.Ed. for trained teachers opportunities also exist both in the qualifying examination and in the course itself for teachers to capitalise on their practical experience and this represents a major step forward in the establishment of a proper and acceptably rigorous link between the theory and the practice of education. In my view it is more important that teachers be given this kind of opportunity than that they be offered short courses in the use of overhead projectors or even the skills needed to teach mixed ability classes, and one hopes that all local authorities will do whatever they can to support teachers who wish to pursue this kind of study whether on a part-time or full-time basis.

It may be argued, however, with some justification that these teachers, who are the products of the old three-year concurrent Certificate courses, although non-graduates, have already pursued their study of Education a good deal farther than the average one-year trained graduate. The main focus of this kind of in-service provision, therefore, must be on raising the level of professional understanding of education of teachers who have entered the profession after one year of training or in many cases after no training at all.

It might be felt that this could best be done by increasing the required period of training for such entrants to the profession from one to two years. Certainly, one would find it difficult to oppose such a proposal. But, in the present economic climate, there is little likelihood of such a step being taken and, in any case, it is not the only, nor even perhaps the most apt, solution to the difficulty. I have already suggested that the main concern of the average graduate in training is with the elements of survival — class control and teaching method. It is not, of course, possible to divorce these entirely from a wider understanding of education, but it is necessary to recognise that this is where the emphasis must lie on a one-year course of initial training. No-one who has been concerned with such courses would deny that it is difficult to persuade graduates of the value of any excursion into the theoretical basis of education that cannot be shown to have an immediate cash-value in terms of classroom practice. Similarly, however, few who have

met these same graduates after four or five years in the profession, when, for example, they have returned to follow Advanced Diploma or M.A. courses, can have failed to recognise that by then an appreciation of the need for and the value of such theoretical studies has grown. This was very clear in the small-scale survey of the attitudes of graduates to their courses of training that was carried out as a part of the London Institute of Education's Area Training Organisation Enquiry into teacher training (1971). The almost total rejection of theory by graduates still on the training courses or in their probationary year was matched by a growing recognition of its importance in those who had been teaching for five years or more.

Herein, I would suggest, may lie the answer to the problem of raising the level of understanding of Education of those teachers who enter the profession by this route. It might not be right, even if the money were available, merely to increase the training period from one year to two. It might be far more profitable to 'save' the second of these years until these teachers have had four or five years of practical experience behind them and use it at that point to enable them to achieve graduate or graduate-equivalent status in Education.

This would suggest that the main purpose of in-service provision should be to provide opportunities for all teachers to attain graduate status in Education or to develop to this minimal level their understanding of the educational process and to maintain this degree of understanding in what is and will continue to be a rapidly developing and evolving field of study and enquiry. All teachers will, of course, need help also in keeping abreast of developments in teaching skills, techniques and methodology generally. But to view in-service education in terms only of courses at that level is not only to take a very limited view of the opportunities it offers, it is also to engage in what might be a largely fatuous exercise of providing teachers with skills without at the same time helping them to develop an understanding of why they need them and how and when to use them. It is thus like training a surgeon to cut away various parts of the human anatomy without concerning ourselves with whether he understands when or in what circumstances it is appropriate for him to use this ability. In short, it is not only a short-sighted process, it is a highly dangerous one too.

I have tried to argue that the opportunity to raise the standards of the teaching profession that is presented by the current reduction in the number of teachers that society needs should be seized as one opportunity to raise not only the academic standards of teachers but their professional standards too, that the notion of an all-graduate teaching profession should be interpreted as requiring that all teachers should be graduates in Education or should be required to develop their understanding of the educational process to at least the equivalent of that level. I have claimed that the current and continuously evolving nature of our schools makes this a vital necessity. And I have finally suggested that the attainment of this goal should be seen as the central purpose of an expanded in-service

provision. In general, what I have been concerned to say is that the improvement of the teacher's understanding of education is more important to educational advance and progress than the development of new skills without the backing of such understanding. Education has been a prey to the ravages of the latter for too long, as the wreckage of many good schemes gone wrong bears testimony.

It would be nice to think that teachers would recognise the truth of this and persuade the politicians and the administrators of it. For then a new pattern of teacher education would emerge in which initial and in-service courses were properly interlinked and enmeshed and the continuing professional education of all teachers could be ensured. However, one cannot avoid the feeling that this is but a pipe-dream, that the unsatisfactory experiences of Education Theory that many teachers had on their initial training courses will have turned them against it for life and that provision will continue to be made in the ways that are most convenient administratively and least demanding financially. For me, Cassandra has long been the most sympathetic figure of Greek mythology.

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Teach and Learn: the College of Preceptors and continuing education

J. Vincent Chapman, College of Preceptors, London

The College of Preceptors is typical of the many associations which have evolved in British Society over a long period of time. These associations were started by groups of men and women in order to resolve a problem or problems created by new social developments. In some cases, when the circumstances have changed, these associations have disappeared but in other cases the underlying crisis in human relationships has re-appeared again in a different form. The sound principles on which a particular association has been formed remain permanent in these changing circumstances.

A Social Crisis

The College of Preceptors emerged in the middle of the nineteenth century because of a crisis of understanding between those who were demanding education (parents) and those who were providing it (schoolmasters). They were not alone in their concern at the ways in which education was being provided, for Charles Dickens had already made it the theme of many of his writings. Moreover the disagreement between the established Church and the Dissenters had been carried into that part of the social structure which was concerned with the education

of children. These religious bodies provided a form of elementary education, whilst schools operating under charitable foundations provided some elementary and most of the secondary education leading to the universities and the professions. In between the elementary and the older grammar schools, and to satisfy an ever growing demand for education from the middle classes created by the industrial revolution, was a collection of individuals. Some had doubtful or negligible qualifications but many with no more skills than were needed to make a living out of minding youngsters.

From this motley collection of middle class schoolmasters emerged a group who had become convinced that the only way to improve the quality of education would be by insisting on some form of recognised qualification for their teachers. Such Training Colleges as there were at that time, existed for the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools. The schools of the charitable foundations, many of which became known as Public Schools, drew their staffs from graduates of the older universities.

The College Formed

The decision to hold a meeting of these schoolmasters on the 20th June 1846 for the purpose of creating the

College of Preceptors came as no surprise. What was surprising was the number of schoolmasters who poured on that day into Bloomsbury in Central London on foot, by coach and by the new-fangled steam train. Amid scenes of great enthusiasm the College of Preceptors was launched as an in-service qualifying body for teachers in middle class schools (where most of the secondary education was by then being given) and within three years the importance of their decision had been officially recognised by the granting of a Royal Charter. In it was enshrined the significant phrase: 'A competent Board of Examiners to ascertain and give Certificates of the acquirements and fitness for their office of persons engaged or desiring to be engaged in the Education of Youth . . .'

Three Qualifications

The College Council decided from the start to establish three groups of people who would be admitted to the College by examination: those who wished to **Associate** themselves with the College and who would therefore become Associates of the College of Preceptors (ACP); those whom the College would subsequently **Licence** to teach and who would then become Licentiates of the College of Preceptors (LCP); and those with a reputation for skill and knowledge and whom they would acknowledge as their **Fellows** (FCP). The basic pattern of these three qualifications, all to be obtained by means of written examination papers, lasted unchanged, except for minor variations, for 100 years.

To the regret of the Council, assistant masters (and later mistresses) did not flock to submit themselves for these examinations although there was through the years a steady number of applicants, one of the most distinguished towards the end of the nineteenth century being H. G. Wells.

Measuring Standards in Education

The College failed to establish standards in education by the qualifying of teachers. These pioneers were ahead of their time for there were plenty of opportunities for teachers to teach in middle class schools without qualifications and the Government was loath to become involved in schooling beyond the provision of financial support for elementary schools — 'the children of the labouring classes'. Almost by accident the College established standards in education in a different way by introducing a procedure which had never been used before on a national scale: the examining of pupils. It was a decision which split the College of Preceptors just as the teaching profession has been split ever since but it was an action which was quickly followed by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge and the Royal Society of Arts.

The first Professor of Education

In the last quarter of the nineteenth century such pioneers on the College Council as Sir Philip Magnus and Miss Frances Mary Buss made a determined effort to establish education as a subject in universities. At first they failed but their energy and enthusiasm estab-

lished in the College in 1873 the first Chair in Education with a regular programme of lectures on the Art and Science of Education. Joseph Payne, a Council member and eminent schoolmaster, was the first Professor of Education until his death in 1876. The programme was then split among a group of university and training college lecturers.

Conversion to Continuing Education

It was not until the social and educational turmoil of the 1960s and 1970s that the public were converted to the long established belief of the College of Preceptors in the need for the continuing education of a teacher in his professional studies. So strong and sudden has been the rush of converts in the last few years that the College of Preceptors could very well have been overwhelmed and swept away but for the work in the 1940s of two eminent Principals of Training Colleges: James Simpson of S. Mark and S. John (then in Chelsea) and 'Jock' Ross of Westminster College (then actually in Westminster). They remodelled the examinations for the qualifications of Associate, Licentiate and Fellow. Mr Simpson as Dean and Mr Ross as Reviser produced a scheme so flexible and so forward-looking that the pattern has been readily adapted more than a quarter of a century later by the current College Council to pioneer a new pattern capable of helping teachers in both the present professional mixture of graduate and non-graduate teachers and in the eventual graduate profession.

A Programme of Further Professional Study

The scheme which they evolved was for a programme of three qualifications each of which could be obtained as a result of a separate and self-contained examination but which could be linked together as an on-going programme of further professional study. All have been planned as in-service qualifications and all were arranged to follow on a period of initial training. Nevertheless the qualifications of Associate was so constructed that it could also be taken by overseas teachers as an in-service qualification, where it could be considered as an element in an in-service **initial** training programme. The examination technique which they introduced were four 3-hour papers for the qualification of Associate, eight 3-hour papers and a thesis for the qualification of Licentiate and a research thesis for the qualification of Fellow.

Moves to a Modular Basis

The loosening of this apparently fairly rigid set of self-contained units planned in the 1940s began with the wind of change which started to blow through education in the mid-1960s. First the regulations for the examination for the qualification of Associate were amended so that instead of a pass being demanded in all four subjects at one and the same examination, each subject could be taken separately on a modular basis. This was carried a stage further when it was recognised that a qualified **trained** teacher could reasonably be exempt from three of the subjects. The fourth subject, however, was basic to the whole con-

cept of the College of Preceptors programme of qualifications: Methods of Teaching. An initial training qualification is essentially awarded as a result of much theoretical study and some controlled experience. The Methods of Teaching paper in the ACP demands evidence that the teacher has taken his or her theoretical knowledge and applied it to the practical situation of classroom teaching over the period of at least one year. This concept of a judicious mixture of theoretical knowledge and practical experience is fundamental to the entire programme of the College of Preceptors in-service qualifications. The Dean who is responsible for standards is able to maintain the balance in such a mixture because he can call on a wide experience in part-time examiners drawn from institutions of higher and further education but who examine on the syllabuses approved by a College Council composed mainly of practising teachers in primary and secondary schools.

The wind of change became a roaring gale after Lord James' Report and in the 1970s the qualification of Associate, although basically the scheme as conceived by Mr Simpson and Mr Ross, has been adapted to suit a number of different professional needs. To begin with the Methods of Teaching paper, in what is termed the Foundation Scheme, now has included in it a large number of options with such variables as The Teaching of Young Children; The Teaching of Reading; Environmental Studies; Remedial Education; The Elementary Principles of Guidance and Counselling in Schools; The Teaching of English as a Second Language; and Teaching in a Multi-Racial Society; as well as the usual subjects of English, Mathematics, History, Geography, etc. This has provided all teachers with a set of options towards which their professional study can be directed.

Alternative Schemes

Beyond this the regulations for the qualification have been further amended in order to provide specific opportunities for well-defined groups of teachers. Alternative Scheme A has been introduced for those teachers holding Scale 3 posts and above including Deputies and Heads whose work includes a prominent element of management. These teachers are offered the opportunity of obtaining the qualification of Associate by submitting a 5,000 word dissertation on an aspect of their own personal experience in organizing a school and its curriculum. This alternative can be taken both by teachers studying individually and privately and those who are attending at an institution of further or higher education. Every year 60 or 70 teachers are submitting dissertations of this kind.

Alternative Scheme B has been introduced to encourage recently qualified teachers to make a start in their continuing professional studies by concentrating on the teacher in the community and learning resources. At the same time the College has introduced yet another examination technique for this alternative. Institutions of higher and further education are encouraged to mount courses within these basic guidelines and at the end of the course to examine candidates within the internal structure of the institution but

to have their results of the examination validated by an external examiner appointed by the institution and approved by the College of Preceptors.

Further Education Teachers

Three years ago two other alternatives to the ACP Foundation Scheme were introduced for two different groups of teachers, both groups teaching within a further education establishment. In Alternative Scheme D Further Education Institutions are encouraged to mount their own training programmes within certain guidelines for their own unqualified recently appointed members of staff. The technique of examining is the same as in Alternative Scheme B in that internally assessed students are externally validated by an examiner approved by the College of Preceptors. The value of this particular alternative scheme has been recognised by the Advisory Committee on the Supply and Training of Teachers in particular on their recent Report entitled 'The Training of Adult Education and Part-time Further Education Teachers'.

The fourth ACP Alternative (Scheme C) applies the dissertation technique to those experienced teachers in further education establishments who have a prominent element of management in their professional work. They may submit a 5,000 word dissertation on an aspect of the Principles and Practice of College Administration and Management.

Value of the ACP Qualification

An increasing number of institutions in higher and further education in different part of the United Kingdom are now mounting part-time courses of varying lengths leading to the qualification of Associate (ACP). It provides at the end of a short course of study an objective for many teachers wishing to undertake some further professional study. Moreover it is not only a satisfactory target but also evidence of further professional study which can prove useful for promotion purposes. For those who wish to go on and carry their further professional studies more deeply and widely, this qualification is the accepted registration requirement for further study within the structure of the College of Preceptors qualifications.

For a graduate the route after ACP can be straight to the FCP research thesis (of which more later). Others can go after ACP into the degree equivalent qualification of Licentiate (LCP).

LCP Structure

The qualification of Licentiate was conceived by Mr Simpson and Mr Ross as a two module (or part) examination. For the first module a teacher is required to study much more widely and deeply the entire basis of educational thinking and practice (The Philosophical, Sociological, Psychological, Administrative and Historical Bases of Education). In the second module (or part) the teacher must study developments in educational thinking and practice related directly to his or her own particular place in education and in addition to write a thesis on an aspect of the teacher's own work. The subject of the thesis must be placed in

the background of current knowledge about the subject.

Burnham Recognition

An application to the Burnham Salaries Committee in 1959 for recognition for salary purposes of the then two-module qualification as the equivalent of a university first degree (which was refused) and the then current plans to introduce the three-year course of initial training prompted the Council to look again at the scheme as conceived of by Mr Simpson and Mr Ross. It was analysed and compared with the then BA London General Degree as well as proposals for the three year course of training. As a result of its deliberations the Council decided to retain the original two modules and add a further module which had a long list of academic subject options to be examined by means of three 3-hour papers. This scheme tested by time, was again submitted to the Burnham Salaries Committee who approved it with effect from 1969. Those who had the two parts before 1963 were allowed to count this for a merit payment but on the addition of the third part were able to claim the graduate equivalent allowance.

A Changing Profession

There are still teachers in the profession who were trained under the emergency training scheme; there are teachers who have had two years of training in a recognised college of education as well as those who have been trained for three years. The introduction of the B.Ed. degree has meant that an increasing proportion of the profession are now graduate qualified teachers but there is still a large number for whom the LCP provides an opportunity of obtaining graduate status. Naturally this state of affairs must continue for a long period of time so that for many years the qualification of Licentiate will therefore have a part to play in the continuing in-service professional training of teachers.

An All-Graduate Profession

The time will come, however, when the teaching profession will become a graduate qualified profession and the consequence is already throwing its shadow well before it. The College Council have recognised that this changing pattern requires a reappraisal of the role of the College's graduate-level qualifications. Nevertheless even when every teacher is a graduate it is now recognised that social, economic and therefore educational change will be (and already is) such an important element in our national life that any teacher with any initial qualification of any kind must continue his professional studies during the greater part of his or her career.

Graduate-level Specialist Diplomas

To help teachers in this situation the College is evolving a flexible scheme of graduate-level diplomas based on the modules of the qualification of Licentiate but aiming to satisfy the needs of teachers wishing to study a particular aspect of their own work: such as those who

move into what is now described as a Management situation; those who undertake Remedial Work or Special Education (the Warnock Report has only served to crystallise a development started many years ago); those involved in Multi-Cultural problems, to name but a few.

It is to help teachers like this that the Council have introduced a formula based on the second module of the qualification of Licentiate (the module which demands a deep study of personal experience) to which can be added a subject or subjects from one of the other two modules. These graduate-level diplomas consist therefore of two modules of the three-module LCP examination; if teachers so desire a third module can be added to complete the LCP qualifications.

Dip.S.M.S.

This formula was first applied in the field of School Management Studies. As long ago as 1954 the College of Preceptors started short vacation courses on what was then called School Administration and which has now become known as School Management Studies. With the help of Mr John Newsom (later Sir John) then Chief Education Officer for Hertfordshire, Dr A. G. Hughes, Chief Inspector for the then London County Council and Mr W. H. Perkins who had just retired from the post of Chief Education Officer for the County of Warwick, a programme of lectures was developed which has continued in an evolving form ever since and which over the years has been held in many different centres. Currently the Midlands Executive of the College of Preceptors in Wolverhampton and the Eastern Executive in Wisbech organize one week courses of different levels during the summer vacation period. These are always heavily over-subscribed. It was because of the success of these short courses that the first of the College of Preceptors graduate-level diplomas, the Diploma in School Management Studies, was created. From LCP Part II the subject of 'The Functions of Headship' (a 3-hour paper and a thesis) has had added to it the LCP Part III subject 'English Law with Special Reference to Education and to Children and Young Persons' (three 3-hour papers). Interest in the short term vacation courses and the innovation of the Diploma in School Management Studies as a target at the end of a much longer period of study encouraged an increasing number of institutions of higher and further education to mount two-year part-time evening courses for teachers in their locality wishing to study for this particular diploma.

At the moment the Council of the College of Preceptors are stimulating this interest further by offering to mount for institutions not yet active in this field, a one-day seminar to test local interest. For this purpose the Council have invited one of their members, who is their Adviser on Educational Law, Mr G. R. Barrell (author of **Teachers and the Law** and **Legal Cases for Teachers**) to direct these seminars. The programme for a seminar consists of lectures, discussions and case studies. Currently seminars have been held or are planned at Exeter, Cardiff, Swansea, London (Avery Hill College), Birmingham, Wisbech, Guildford and

Other Specialist Diplomas

This same formula for the construction of graduate-level diplomas has now been applied to Diplomas in Primary, Secondary and Further Education (Dip. Prim. Ed., Dip. Sec.Ed., Dip.F.E.); and in the field of Special Education and Curriculum Studies. The Diploma in Multi-Cultural Studies is in its final stages of preparation. With the successful launching of this programme of graduate-level diplomas, the College Council are now looking at the possibility of its extension into other areas of education.

Institutional Involvement

The opportunity of providing part-time courses leading to these qualifications has been seized by a large number of institutions of higher and further education — Polytechnics, Colleges of Education, Technical Colleges and Colleges of Further Education. The response has been remarkable and institutions like the Cauldon College of Further Education, Stoke-on-Trent, have found themselves opening their doors in the Autumn term to a long queue of teachers wanting to enrol. This is no isolated instance for the same has been the experience of places like the Dudley College of Education and the Wolverhampton Day Training College (now the Faculty of Education of the Wolverhampton Polytechnic) and the Millbank College of Commerce in Liverpool. This last institution has extended its programme even further by taking over the Adult Education Centre at Burton Manor for a week-end and holding a Conference for its students on College of Preceptors courses and arranging a Presentation Ceremony for the increasing number of teachers who have now obtained one or other of the College of Preceptors qualifications.

Programme Structure

Colleges mounting courses leading to the College of Preceptors qualifications find that they have had to evolve programmes satisfying a number of aims. Many teachers want a short period of study and the ACP offers a satisfactory target. Some teachers do not take their studies further: others take the ACP as a first mile-post on a longer run usually ending with one or other of the graduate-level diplomas. Some of these teachers go even further and complete the qualification of Licentiate (LCP). This is particularly attractive now, even if the teacher is on a salary scale beyond the point where a degree addition operates. The College Council have authorised such additions to the designatory titles as LCP (Sec.Ed.), LCP(Sp.Ed.), LCP (SMS) etc.

Institutions find they can therefore mount a part-time ACP course spread over two or three terms. Alternatively they can link an ACP course with a two-year part-time course leading to a graduate-level diploma. They do this by arranging a linked ACP course in year one, term one of the two-year course. From everyone's point of view, the teacher, the institution and the LEA, this is a neat package of continuing professional edu-

cation.

There is, however, a wide diversity in the attitude of Local Authorities to the payment of fees for this kind of course. Some Authorities are prepared to pay all the costs involved: others make either a part payment or find reasons why money cannot be found. On a cost-effective analysis, programmes of study leading to the qualifications of the College of Preceptors are better than many other programmes and it is a pity that the enthusiasm of teachers for this kind of course is not being fully mobilised by all Local Authorities.

For the College of Preceptors there are still examination techniques and areas of study to be explored, but the major problem facing the College Council is the on-going extension of providing study targets beyond the graduate-level diplomas and the qualification of Licentiate. At present the qualification of Fellow can be obtained only by presenting a research thesis and an increasing number of teachers are attempting this kind of investigation into a problem with which they are closely concerned. There are, however, many teachers who are not inclined towards this kind of professional study and who would prefer to attempt some other form of study more deeply and more widely. The College Council have become convinced that there should be alternative options at the level of the qualification of Fellow but consultation has yet to be concluded on the kind of options which might prove most suitable.

In response therefore to the changing demands of a teaching profession for an evolving educational system, the College of Preceptors has been able to use the flexibility of its Royal Charter of 1849 to provide at the end of the twentieth century opportunities which were not dreamed of in the middle of the nineteenth century. This structure of further professional qualifications is a major contribution.

Regional Executives

Nevertheless the members of the College of Preceptors are not content to make this their only contribution. Members in England and Wales are grouped into twelve Regions and an Executive in each Region arranges its own local programme of short courses, conferences and lectures as a means of communicating to teachers in their area ideas, information and experience, from any source which might prove useful. Reference has been made to the work of the Midlands and Eastern Executives in presenting vacation courses in School Management Studies. Other Regions hold one-day seminars on such subjects as: The Role of the Head; Music in Schools; The Teaching of Reading, etc. Longer conferences have been arranged by the Metropolitan Executive on 'Children Under Stress' (1977) and 'Special Education — Warnock and Beyond' (1978) and the Southern Executive on 'Partnership in Management' (1978).

Joseph Payne Memorial Lectures

Several Regions have undertaken the presentation of a Lecture in memory of Joseph Payne, the first Professor of Education, and recently these have been by: Joslyn Owen on 'Education for the Future: Illusion or

Reality?' (South-West Executive); Dame Kathleen Ollerenshaw on 'Accountability and the Curriculum' (Southern Executive); Sir Ronald Gould on 'Quality in Education' (Southern Executive); Lord Glenamara (formerly The Rt. Hon. Edward Short) on 'A Contribution to the National Debate on Education' (Yorkshire and Humberside Executive); and Sir Toby Weaver on 'Higher Education and the Polytechnics' (Metropolitan Executive).

Outside this field an interesting experiment was undertaken by the South-East Executive in association with the Race Relations Board by organizing a course at Stockwell College on Multi-Cultural Studies.

The College of Preceptors is a unique society of teachers with the legal authority of a Royal Charter to engage in the kind of work which otherwise is undertaken by universities and other institutions of higher

education. The College is therefore a valuable and unique system of communicating professional expertise from one group of teachers to another. This network of communication is even wider and includes overseas countries now independent but formally part of the British Empire. This is another story but it is a sign of the leadership which the teaching profession of Britain can give to countries still fashioning their own educational systems.

Not without good reason did the founding fathers of the College of Preceptors adopt the motto: **Pro doctrinis et disciplinis — Teach and learn.**

J. Vincent Chapman FCP is Secretary of the College of Preceptors.

REVIEWS

The Directory of Social Change I: Education and Play

Barbara Dinham and Michael Norton

Wildwood House, London, 1977.

£7.25 and £4.50, 280pp.

The Personal and the Political: Social Work and Political Action

Paul Halmos, Hutchinson, London, 1978.

£5.95 and £2.95, 200pp.

These two books are linked because they share concerns for action and change. Both also operate within the context of social work in Britain. Professor Halmos challenges the thesis that widespread poverty and deprivation demand political action for their eradication rather than the piecemeal and gradual solution of personal problems through careful case-work. His conclusion is that neither course of action should be followed exclusively, the one neglecting the social conditions that led to the problem in the first place, the other through direct political action, offering the danger of political control and the erosion of freedom. The middle-path conclusion is open to challenge, but is at least plausible.

M/s Dinham and Mr Norton, on the other hand, have written a book, not for the professional social worker anxious lest his fervour lead to totalitarianism, but for those who through a desire for change in education systems seek ways of operating outside it. It is about education and not schooling that they write; and not just with children, but with the community both local and global. It is store of ideas that are fascinating in their scope and practical in their application. There is no concern with theory, but with needs and how they can be met. It is also comprehensive, covering pre-school, school and community, sexism, racism, alternatives, careers and resources.

These books are a good balance; something Paul Halmos advocates. They seem to assume the failure of overt action. One presses for a sociological reassessment, and the other for direct community as opposed to political action. Inevitably both will produce greater political awareness.

COLIN HARRIS

The Pergamon Dictionary of Perfect Spelling

Christine Maxwell

Wheaton a division of Pergamon Press, Oxford, 1977, 335pp.

Since one assumes that the spelling in a dictionary will be 'perfect', this would seem a strange title for a dictionary; but even stranger when it appears that many of the entries are mis-spellings. Among correct spellings, phonetic mis-spellings are printed in red in alphabetic order. Where a mis-spelling is presented the correct spelling appears in black print to its right. It is intended for use by people whose knowledge of spelling is so poor that they may not be able to use a conventional dictionary. This, combined with details of difficult or irregular present participles, past participles and derivatives, could be extremely useful both for some students of English as a foreign language and for native speakers with a poor command of spelling. The question is whether the gains outweigh the losses due to the visual reinforcement of the mis-spelling? I am not completely convinced by the compiler's claim that 'the possible negative effect of showing students incorrect spellings has proved unfounded.'

ELEANOR ANDERSON

International Dictionary of Education

G. Terry Page, J. B. Thomas with A. R. Marshall

Kogan Page, London/Nichols Publishing Co., New York

1977, 381pp. £10.00

The most natural reaction when confronted with a dictionary of this sort is to try to catch it out. Something which claims to be comprehensive must surely have some gaps. To the book's credit these are extremely difficult to find. Followers of the English education scene will be familiar with the present arguments over the voucher scheme which is supposed to provide for more parental choice in secondary school selection. Both vouchers and parental (or guided) choice are included in the entries which we are told number more than 9,000 — and I can believe it.

The other temptation is to look up old favourites like concept and programmed learning. Both are there

again, and in each case with several cross-references which are a feature of this book.

The international dimension of the dictionary commends it particularly to readers of **The New Era** as frequently references are made here to educational systems and jargon perhaps, in spite of the editors' attempts to internationalise the terminology, unfamiliar to those who cannot cope with such puzzles as GCE and ILEA. Again they are both here, and many more besides. An appendix of abbreviations is particularly helpful, as is the list of American Honor Societies, Professional Fraternities and Sororities.

Altogether it is a valuable reference book for all workers in education, and well worth £10.

COLIN HARRIS

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